

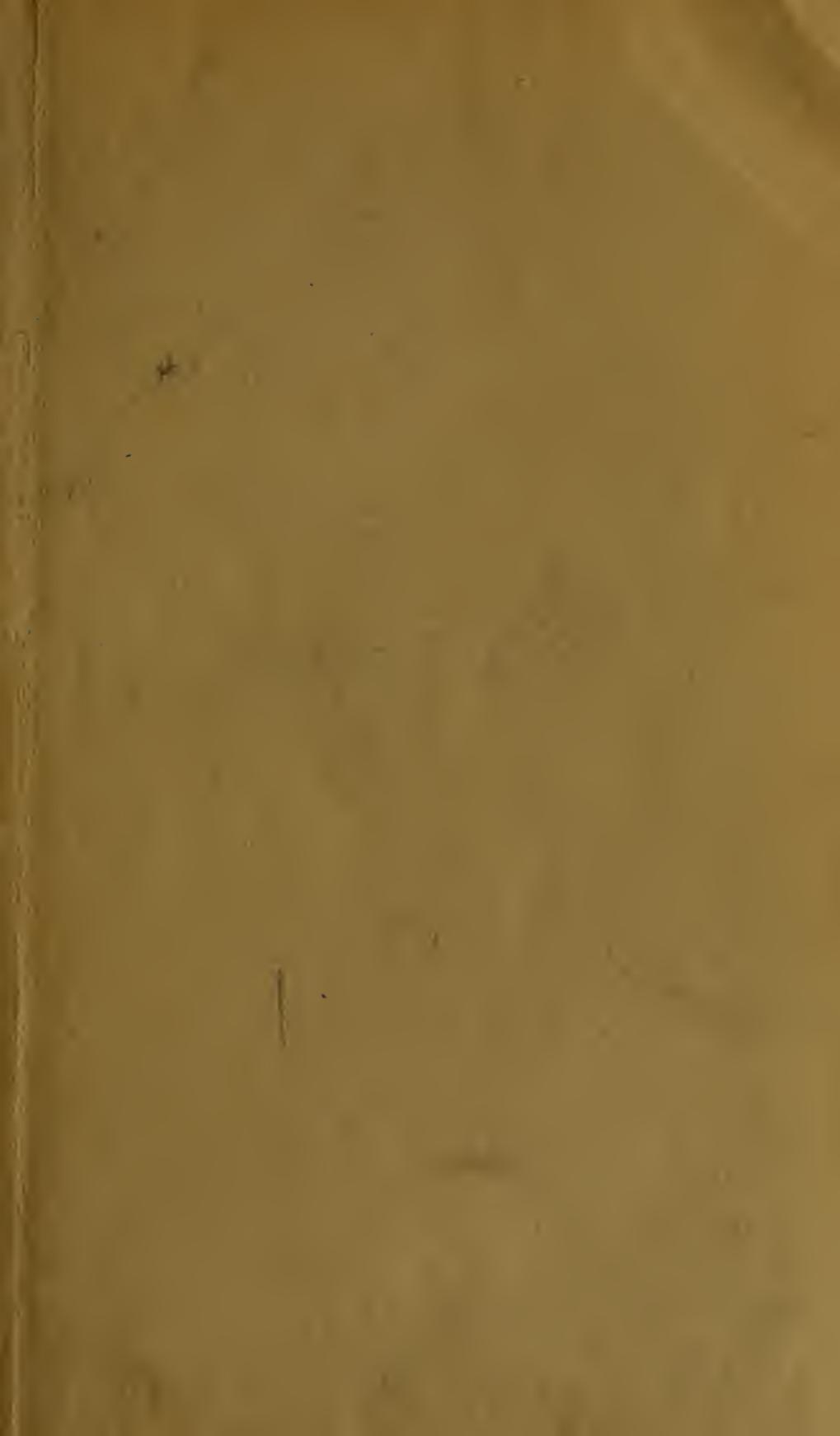
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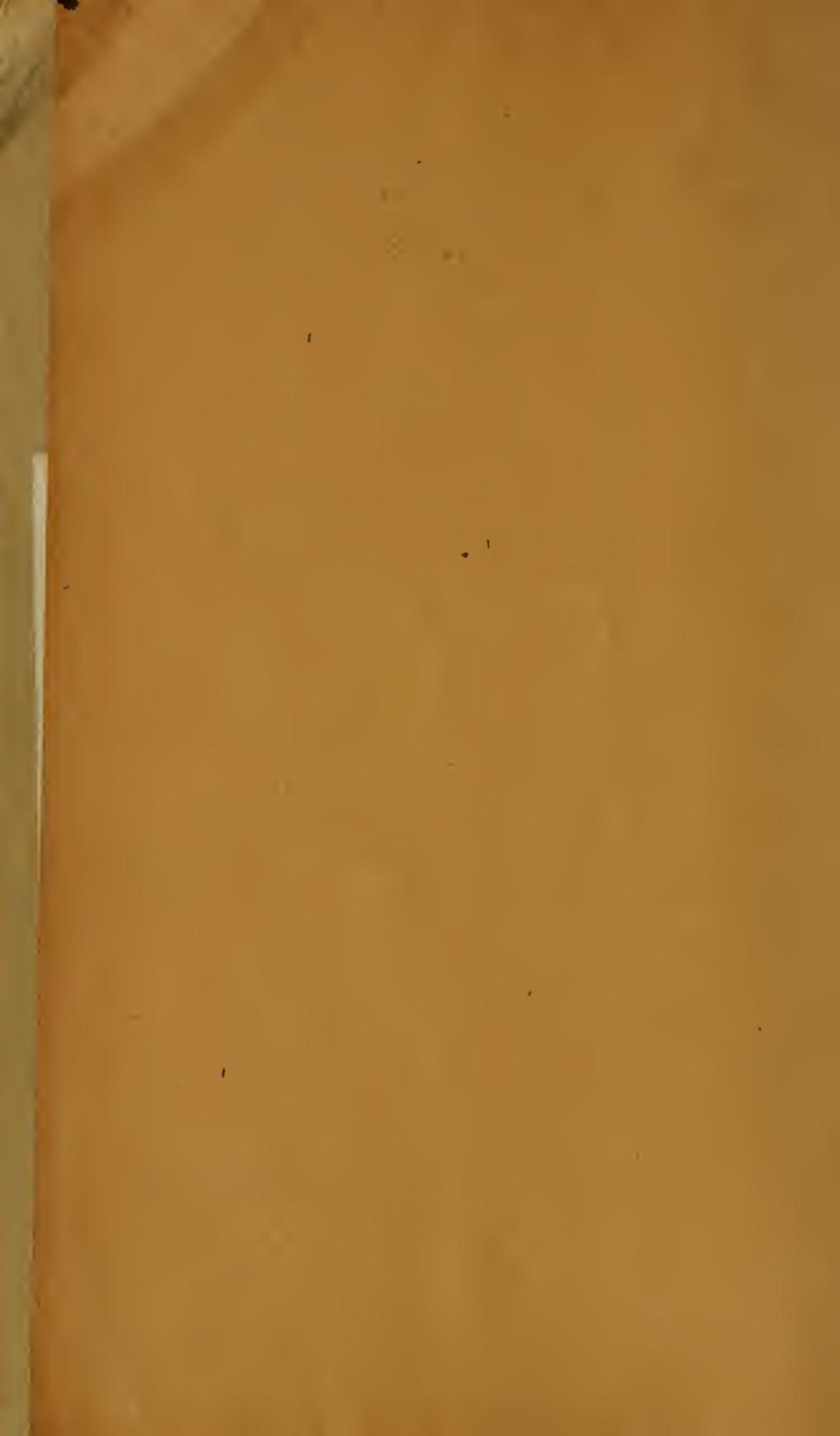
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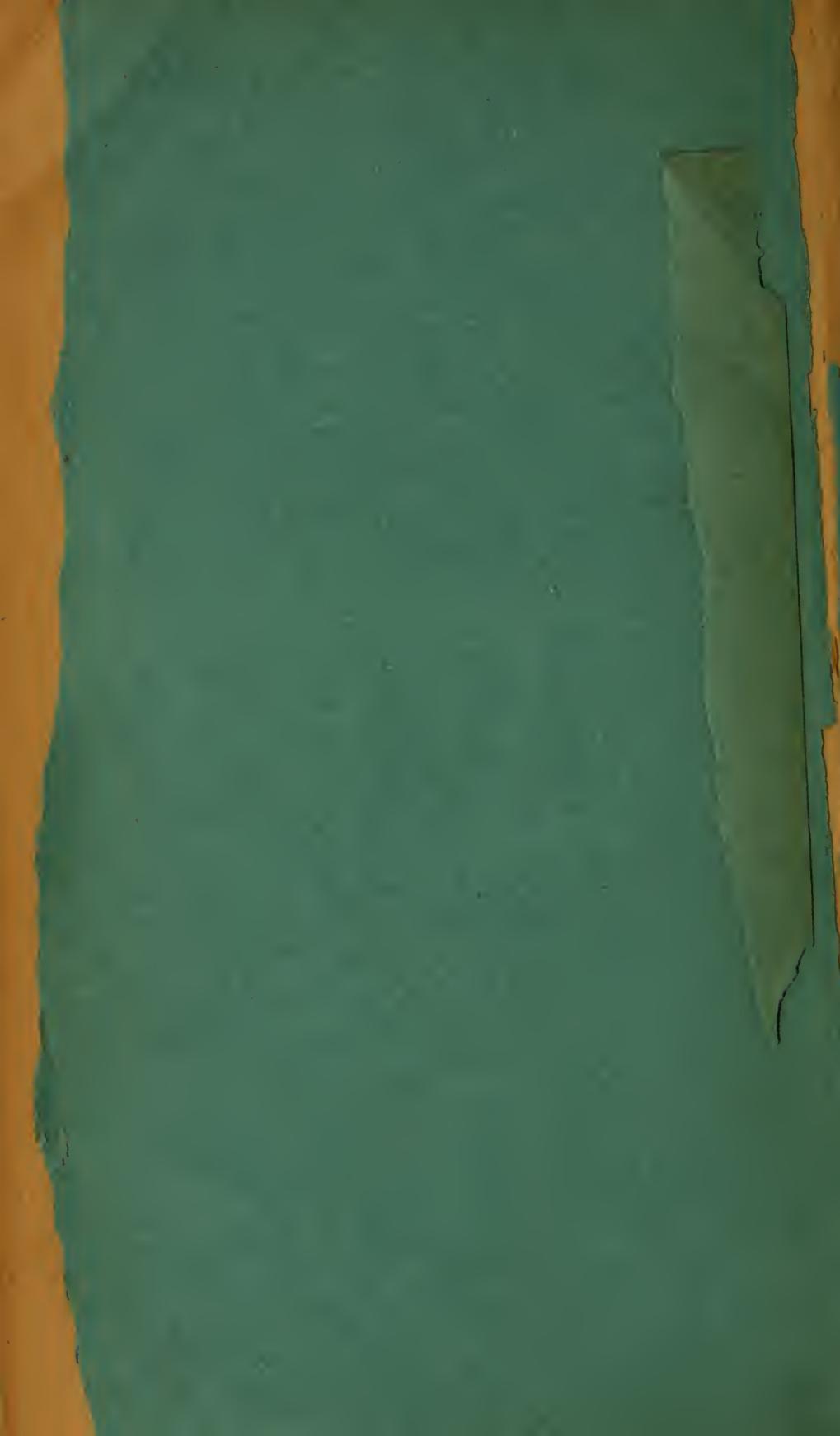


UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
CHILDREN'S BUREAU . . . PUBLICATION No. 170

HANDBOOK
FOR THE USE OF BOARDS OF DIRECTORS,
SUPERINTENDENTS, AND STAFFS OF
INSTITUTIONS FOR DEPENDENT
CHILDREN

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

JAMES J. DAVIS, Secretary

CHILDREN'S BUREAU

GRACE ABBOTT, Chief

HANDBOOK

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SUPERINTENDENTS, AND STAFFS OF
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CHILDREN

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	Page
CHAPTER VIII.—MENTAL HEALTH	62
General principles of mental health	62
Some essentials for mental health	64
CHAPTER IX.—HABIT FORMATION	69
Habits and their development	69
Jealousy	70
Fear	70
Anger	72
Sex education and sex problems	75
Enuresis (bed wetting)	76
CHAPTER X.—SPIRITUAL AND MORAL TRAINING	79
Religious instruction	79
Moral training	80
Discipline	81
Individual responsibility	83
Self-government	84
CHAPTER XI.—EDUCATION	87
The educational program	87
Opportunities for education beyond the high school	92
Vocational training	92
CHAPTER XII.—RECREATION	95
The necessity of play	95
Suggestions for the recreation leader	96
Play for children under 10 years of age	97
Play for children over 10 years of age	97
The playground	100
The indoor playroom	100
CHAPTER XIII.—DISCHARGE AND AFTERCARE	102
Policies governing discharge	102
Technicalities of discharge	102
Return of children to their own families	103
Placement in family homes	104
Discharge of children committed for long-time care	105
Methods of aftercare	105
CHAPTER XIV.—RECORDS AND STATISTICS	108
The purpose of records and statistics	108
Case records	109
Administrative records	116
Financial reports	116
Social statistics	117
CHAPTER XV.—LIST OF REFERENCES	120
General	120
Administration	122
The plant	122
Buildings	123
Admissions	123
Physical care	123
Food and clothing	124
Mental health and habit formation	125
Spiritual and moral training	126
Education	127
Recreation	127
Discharge and aftercare	128
Records and statistics	129

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR,
CHILDREN'S BUREAU,

Washington, October 22, 1926.

SIR: There is transmitted herewith a handbook for the use of boards of directors, superintendents, and members of the staff of institutions for dependent children. It was prepared at the suggestion of the Georgia State Department of Public Welfare, and a manuscript written by Rhoda Kaufman and Mary McLeod, of that department, was used as the preliminary draft for this report.

The following were appointed to serve as an advisory committee to the bureau in the preparation of the handbook: Dr. Ellen C. Potter, secretary, Pennsylvania Department of Welfare; Rhoda Kaufman, secretary, Georgia Department of Public Welfare; Charles H. Johnson, secretary, New York State Board of Charities; Amy Steinhart Braden, executive secretary, California Department of Public Welfare; Mary Irene Atkinson, formerly chief, institution-inspection bureau, division of charities, Ohio Department of Public Welfare; A. T. Jamison, D. D., superintendent, Connie Maxwell Orphanage, Greenwood, S. C.; Franklin Thomas, superintendent, Orphan Asylum Society in the City of New York, Hastings-on-Hudson, N. Y.; Hastings H. Hart, LL. D., consultant in delinquency and penology, Russell Sage Foundation; and C. C. Carstens, executive director, Child Welfare League of America. To this committee was submitted the preliminary draft for suggestions and criticism. In addition to the help received from members of this committee, the whole handbook or sections of it have been read and criticized at various stages by many persons, officials of State departments of public welfare, and superintendents of child-caring agencies and institutions for dependent children. For assistance of this sort the bureau is especially indebted to Rev. Bryan J. McEntegart, director, division of children, the Catholic Charities of the Archdiocese of New York, and Leon W. Goldrich, Ph. D., executive director, Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society of New York Orphan Asylum, Pleasantville, N. Y.

Help in the preparation of the manuscript was given by Dr. Ellen C. Potter, secretary, department of welfare, Harrisburg, Pa.; Dr. Rudolph R. Reeder, director, the Marsh Foundation School, Van Wert, Ohio; Dr. Helen T. Woolley, professor of education and director of the institute of juvenile research, Columbia University; and Henry C. Wright, director, hospital and institutional bureau of consultation, New York, N. Y.

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

Many of the experts on the staff of the Children's Bureau have assisted in preparing the different sections of the report, but it is especially the work of A. Ethel Barger, who assembled and incorporated the suggestions made by the committee and other experts, and Emma O. Lundberg, then director of the social-service division, who was in general charge of the preparation of the handbook.

Respectfully submitted.

GRACE ABBOTT, *Chief.*

Hon. JAMES J. DAVIS,
Secretary of Labor.

HANDBOOK FOR THE USE OF BOARDS OF DIRECTORS, SUPERINTENDENTS, AND STAFFS OF INSTITUTIONS FOR DEPENDENT CHILDREN

Chapter I.—THE INSTITUTION AS AN AGENCY FOR SOCIAL WELFARE

THE DEVELOPMENT OF CHILD-CARING WORK

Institutions for dependent and neglected children developed early in the history of this country in response to definite local needs for the care of groups of destitute children. The first institution of this kind in the United States was established in 1729 in connection with the Ursuline Convent in New Orleans, in order to shelter children orphaned through the Indian massacres. In 1740 Rev. George Whitefield founded the Bethesda Orphan House at Savannah, Ga., as a school for needy boys. Institutions later grew up rapidly, many of them in order to provide religious training and educational opportunities not then available to the masses of the population and particularly inaccessible to the children of the very poor. As the evils of caring for children in almshouses became manifest, the almshouse children were transferred to private institutions. The influx of large numbers of destitute immigrants during the famine period before 1850 and the Civil War's aftermath of orphaned and needy children increased the amount of child dependency.

In the last half of the nineteenth century many other agencies concerned with social welfare developed, and their interests gradually became linked with those of the child-caring institutions. The placement of dependent children in family homes on an extensive scale was begun by the New York Children's Aid Society in 1853, and the organization of similar societies followed throughout the country. Thirty years later a special impetus was given to this movement by the Children's Home Society, the forerunner of 35 home-finding societies. There was no organized work for child protection until the establishment in 1875 of the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. The charity-organization movement with its important results in the field of family relief and welfare began at about the same time.

Since 1875 there has been rapid increase in children's aid activities and in the development of the placing-out system for the care of dependent children. The work of family-welfare societies has multiplied. The so-called mothers' pension system—the maintenance of children in their own homes by means of public funds—began in 1911. This movement, which began almost simultaneously in Mis-

souri and Illinois, has extended until at the beginning of 1926 there were laws authorizing such aid in 42 States.

In the early years the institution method was almost the only means provided for the care of dependent children. With the development of social work for the prevention of dependency, the relief of destitute families, and the protection and care of dependent and neglected children, institutional care has become one of several forms of child-welfare work. (The institutions themselves have steadily changed in character, as they have adjusted their organization to meet the different needs that have developed.) The prevention of child dependency through family-relief work and public aid for dependent children in their own homes, and changes in the social and economic life of the country have definitely lessened the need for institutional care. Institutions, thus relieved of some of the stress of caring for large numbers of children, should become able to devote themselves to specialized activities.

THE FIELD OF THE INSTITUTION

Three distinct types of assistance for dependent children—aid to dependent families, placement in foster homes, and institutional care—have developed in the United States. The form of aid provided has been largely a question of the preference of the person or group organizing the particular activity, and the kind of care a child has received has depended largely upon the method employed by the agency to which application happened to be made. The service expense of good institutional care and of good placing work seems to be practically the same, but the capital outlay for buildings and expenses of maintaining the plant of institutional care are much greater.

A few years ago the popular slogan was: "Normal children should be placed in family homes"; it was held that "institutions will always be needed for the subnormal and the handicapped." To-day opinion has changed considerably, and some agencies maintain that the subnormal or handicapped child and the child showing tendencies toward abnormal conduct are in greatest need of individualized care in a family home. Certain agencies have met with considerable success in providing good family-home care for such children. Scientific study of the child before placement and careful selection and supervision of the homes are necessarily the foundation of their work.

On the other hand, it is admitted that there are cases in which an institution may be better for the child who has little or no training in proper social and health habits or one who requires special care because of disease or physical handicaps. This may be true of the so-called normal child as well as of the subnormal or "problem" child. It is recognized by every one that the child who is seriously defective mentally or who requires the discipline of an institution equipped for training delinquent children should not be in an institution for dependent children nor under the care of a child-placing agency. More and more juvenile-court judges are distinguishing between the "delinquent" child whose mental traits or character defects make it necessary to commit him to a correctional institution and the child who has got into trouble chiefly because he lacked

proper home influences. The complexity of types and the impossibility of classifying into definite groups prove the futility of attempting to make categories of the kinds of care required. Each child must be dealt with on the basis of his individual needs.

Broadly speaking, the purpose of an institution for dependent children should be the care of children who can not be provided for properly in their own homes or with relatives and for whose care a particular institution is better adapted than any other available agency. Sometimes the care provided by the institution is temporary, pending arrangement for care in a foster home or during a time of emergency, after which the child is returned to his own relatives. In other cases the institution provides for children for more or less prolonged periods. Just what types of service need to be developed by institutions and what changes must be made in existing methods are matters for study. (The present is pre-eminently a time of honest effort on the part of many institutions to discover the field in which they can be of greatest service and to carry out that work in cooperation with other agencies.)

The institution for children that is meeting its problems in accordance with modern ideals of social service recognizes its part in the whole program of social-welfare work. It should be closely linked up with all other social-welfare agencies. Its interest can not be dissociated from the interests of all other organizations doing local or state-wide work in the field of family relief or child care and protection. In social policy the day is past for the isolated institution; that is, the institution, large or small, which receives under care any child brought to it in presumable need, with no sense of responsibility for finding out what are the conditions that led to the application for aid and what action will best solve the child's problem.

All the agencies that have a part in the program of care of dependent children and in the treatment of family and community conditions that tend to cause dependency are vitally concerned with the factors determining the standards of health, decency, and comfort that normally may be attained. The institution, no less than the social agencies coming in contact more directly with community conditions and the causes of poverty, disease, and degeneracy, has an obligation to inform itself regarding the nature of the problems with which it deals. It should work not only to develop fully the individual lives intrusted to its care but also to remove the underlying causes of dependency. Far more important than the rescue and rehabilitation of unfortunate children is the prevention of the need for the sheltering care of the institution or agency.

FORMS OF INSTITUTIONS FOR DEPENDENT CHILDREN

There are four main types of institutions for dependent children. Each of these forms has variations which relate to the character of the specific problems dealt with and to the types of training or special treatment provided. According to the kind of service which the institutions render, they may be classified as follows:

1. *Receiving or detention homes providing facilities for diagnosis or emergency and short-time care.*—These include small institutions

used as "clearing bureaus" for groups of institutions and agencies, temporary shelters used by agencies pending placement in family homes, and detention homes of court or protective agencies.

2. *Institutions combining the features of receiving homes and clinics for the study and special treatment of children.*—Sometimes such institutions also provide convalescent care for cardiac, orthopedic, or other cases.

3. *Institutions for general care.*—These include institutions making no limitations in regard to the type of children received other than those based on such broad classifications as age, sex, race, or religious, fraternal, or group affiliation.

4. *Institutions providing specialized care or training.*—These are for special types of dependent children, such as those physically handicapped or convalescent, or "problem children" who need particular attention because of mental condition or moral traits.

The auspices under which the institution is conducted—public or private, for instance—and the particular denominational, fraternal, racial, or other group which it aims to serve will determine the field and to some extent the methods of work. There are, however, certain fundamental principles that should apply to all types of institutions; and these are discussed in the following section.

DETERMINING THE NEED FOR THE INSTITUTION AND THE SERVICE TO BE RENDERED

Persons who are contemplating the building of a children's institution should first make a careful study to determine whether such an institution as they are considering is really needed or whether they might perform a better service by undertaking some other activity for children. In most States the State board of public welfare, board of charities, or board of control is equipped to give advice as to the needs for further institutional provision and can suggest the development of work that would be of constructive service to the children of a given community. As their work develops along the lines of prevention of dependency, these boards are the more able to offer valuable suggestions.

Inquiry into the need of a proposed institution for dependent children may disclose that family-relief work should be done and that family rehabilitation may be possible through the correction of bad housing and of other degrading conditions that may exist. In the States that have provided by law for public aid to children in their own homes it becomes the duty of persons interested in child welfare to see to it that such aid be rendered available for the purpose for which it was intended, namely, to give adequate assistance to mothers who, because of the death of the breadwinner or for some other reason covered by the law, can not otherwise maintain their homes and give to their children the necessary attention.

Institutions caring for dependent children and agencies providing for their care in family homes have an equal responsibility to make sure that they are not depriving the children of natural homes, or relieving the children's own families of their obligation for the care and support that they can provide or that they could provide if aided. Institutions in their contact with social problems have an

opportunity and an obligation to work together with the other social forces in the community for the prevention of child dependency and for the full application of such child-protective measures as are included in the laws of the State.

In recent years a great deal has been said and written about "the dead hand" in charity—those bequests and foundations so circumscribed by their donors that they can not serve the changing needs of social progress but must forever be administered in accordance with outworn methods. Institutions for dependent children especially have been the victims of this sort of handicapping benevolence. Well-intentioned and supremely generous, the testators have left their millions to found and endow in perpetuity institutions for some special class of children. The real community loss in these endowments based on conditions of a generation gone by or on needs that were fancied by the donor but never really existed, lies in the service that could be supplied by the funds if their use were not restricted.

REDEFINING OF INSTITUTIONAL PROGRAMS

Authorities on institutions agree that mothers' aid legislation, the restriction of immigration as affecting certain racial groups, prohibition, and improved economic conditions have definitely lessened the need for institutional or foster-home care of dependent children. Improved health conditions, better maternity care, workmen's compensation laws, and other forms of social-insurance measures are undoubtedly important factors that will increasingly operate to prevent child dependency. As a result, some institutions are finding it practicable to reduce the number of children cared for and in consequence to change their methods and equipment to conform better to the new standards. Others are undertaking the care of new types of cases, frequently accepting children who, though not seriously delinquent, require because of home conditions a period of care and retraining under wholesome surroundings. In former years such children would have been committed by courts to institutions receiving delinquent children. Still other institutions are undertaking the care of convalescent children or of orthopedic or cardiac cases, or of those requiring a special service for a limited period of time; or they offer to other agencies of the community a place for temporary care of children during family emergencies or pending placement in foster homes.

Persons or agencies planning new institutions or considering the reorganization of old ones should give due consideration to the whole program of child-welfare work of the community and the State, and should consult with the other agencies concerned before they decide what field of service they wish to develop.

CONSERVING THE CHILD'S RIGHT TO A NORMAL HOME

The conference on child welfare held under the auspices of the United States Children's Bureau in 1919 enunciated the following statement of principles:

The fundamental rights of childhood are normal home life, opportunities for education, recreation, vocational preparation for life, and moral, religious, and

physical development in harmony with American ideals, and the educational and spiritual agencies by which these rights of the child are normally safeguarded.¹

The conference recognized as fundamental principles of institutional administration (1) thorough investigation before receiving a child, (2) cooperation with other agencies that are or should be interested, (3) maintenance of the child's community contacts and his relationships with his own family, and (4) continual effort toward the reestablishment in the child's own family home or placement in a foster home under healthful conditions. It was further agreed that "unless unusual conditions exist the child's welfare is best promoted by keeping him in his own home. No child should be permanently removed from his home unless it is impossible so to reconstruct family conditions or build and supplement family resources as to make the home safe for the child or so to supervise the child as to make his continuance in the home safe for the community. In case of removal, separation should not continue beyond the period of reconstruction."²

Although it is recognized as a fundamental aim of child care and protection that the family home shall be kept intact and be aided to function for the proper care of the children, the working out of the methods by which primary emphasis may be placed on family case work has been very slow.

CENTRAL CLEARING BUREAUS

One of the most significant developments in social service, with important bearings on the institutional care of dependent children, is the central clearing bureau for the investigation of applications to institutions and agencies. Such bureaus include those conducted by the charitable organizations of religious groups or federations of social agencies as well as cooperative arrangements between certain agencies and institutions. They stress thorough investigation as a basis of intake and try to have the children remain in their own homes whenever possible. The type of service given is illustrated by the Children's Bureau of Cleveland, which was organized in 1921 as a cooperative undertaking of the child-caring agencies and institutions of that city (exclusive of the Jewish agencies). This office investigates all applications for care of children by the agencies and institutions affiliated, and on the basis of its findings it makes recommendations in regard to the care needed.

Mention should also be made of the very important interchange of information rendered available to institutions and agencies in many cities through a confidential exchange, or social-service exchange, to which applications are reported for clearing.

RELATING THE INSTITUTION TO OTHER FORMS OF ASSISTANCE

The way in which the institution may carry out its obligation to protect the rights of the children who come to its attention is determined largely by the character of the community and the re-

¹ Minimum Standards for Child Welfare, adopted by the Washington and regional conference on child welfare, 1919, p. 11. U. S. Children's Bureau Publication No. 62. Washington, 1920.

² *Ibid.*, p. 12.

sources that exist for the various forms of service to families and children. There are exigencies in which it apparently becomes necessary for the institution to expand its own activities in order that the varied types of service may be provided; but sometimes institutions, as well as other organizations, unnecessarily or unwisely undertake work that they are not properly equipped to do and that might be done better by other existing agencies or by organizations to be created for some special type of service. Whether an institution is to be praised or blamed for undertaking extra-institutional activities can not be determined without due regard to the situation in each community.

Not only in connection with receiving children under care but throughout the stay of the children the institution must work in co-operation with the agencies dealing with family and environmental conditions and likewise with those equipped to give special types of service to the child. Many practical forms of cooperation have been worked out between family-relief and child-caring agencies and institutions which are not equipped to do such work or which prefer to devote their attention more particularly to training and care within the institution.

THE MEASURE OF THE INSTITUTION'S VALUE

(The measure of the worth of an institution is to be found not in its buildings, grounds, and equipment but in the degree to which it fulfills a real need in the child-caring program and gives to the child such care and training as will most nearly compensate him for the loss of the spiritual, educational, and emotional values of a normal home.) Buildings and equipment are only important means to an end. The personalities and ideals of the board members, superintendent, matrons, teachers, and all the institution workers create the spirit of the institution, and upon that spirit the vital interests of the child depend.

New ideals of the physical aspects of child-caring institutions have led to the development of a type of construction very different from the original congregate form. The small cottage or adaptation of a family dwelling is now generally held to be the most desirable type of building, and in new institutions a group of cottages and other necessary buildings usually replaces the former congregate structure. But the really vital progress is not in the changed character of the buildings; it appears in the changed method of dealing with the children which such a change in construction facilitates.

The moral and spiritual training of the children, the development of good habits, and the exertion of right influences on their daily lives are the matters of greatest importance. To accomplish these ends the institution must make a consistent effort to supply the elements of home life in as great a measure as is possible outside of a normal family group. Some institutions with the finest equipment may lack the influences that are really vital for the children's happiness and well-being. Other institutions, large and small, which have not the approved physical equipment may yet give to the children in good measure the essentials for their development and future usefulness. There is always danger that overemphasis of the physical

features of institutional life may result in the substitution of material values for the spiritual. This danger is especially great if supervision is delegated through too many channels and if the people who come in direct contact with the daily life of the children lack experience and understanding of child psychology and are therefore unable to give sympathetic direction. Attractiveness and convenience of buildings are undeniably great assets in making possible a good type of service, but the quality of an institution depends far less upon the size of the buildings and upon the equipment than upon the personnel and the understanding care that each child receives.

The institutional situation at the present time is constantly changing. Old institutions are becoming out of date in their physical equipment and even more so in their methods of work, and many of them are honestly facing the problem and are undertaking reconstruction.

Because of the decreasing need for institutional care in communities with a well-developed child-caring program it is not probable that any large number of new institutions will be organized. Institutions that can not change their physical aspects very considerably are, nevertheless, giving heed to experiments that have been found practicable in arrangements modifying the building, so that the children may be grouped in accordance with the modern ideal of the small units, permitting more individual supervision than was possible under the old congregate plan.

It is for existing institutions especially that this handbook has been prepared, with the purpose of suggesting to them methods by which the child-caring institution may become a vital factor in social welfare and not an organization that is satisfied to live in its own past. The standards herein set forth can cover only in outline the more important details of institution construction and management.

The purpose and value of an institution may be tested by some such criteria as the following:

(a) What is the institution's value in relation to the community? What real need does the institution fill, in view of other existing agencies and the resources that might be made available?

(b) What is the institution's value in relation to the child? Will the child whom the institution serves be cared for better by this institution than by some other agency, or even better than through aid in his own home?

(c) What is the institution's value in relation to the service given? What kind of help does it give to the child physically, intellectually, and morally? Is it developing right habits of body and mind with the object of adjusting the child to his future life in the community?

Chapter II.—ADMINISTRATION

INCORPORATION

1. Private organizations whose purpose is to care for dependent children should be incorporated.

Incorporation should take place only upon approval by the State supervising board such as the board of control, department of public welfare, or board of charities and corrections. In many States the laws require incorporation; but whether or not it is compulsory it is desirable.

The public institution is not incorporated, since the scope of its work is defined by statute.

To engage in the work of caring for needy children is to assume a most serious responsibility and should therefore be permitted only to those who are definitely organized for the purpose, who are of suitable character, and possess, or have reasonable assurance of securing, the funds needed for their support.¹

GOVERNING BOARD

Membership and organization.

2. The board should be elected by a vote of the supporting membership directly or by a representative body.

At present governing boards originate in three ways:

- (a) Election by membership group.
- (b) Appointment by governing body such as a church conference or a lodge council.
- (c) Selection of new members by the board, which thus becomes self-perpetuating.

The first two methods are in accord with democratic principles; but the third method is not, and it should be abandoned when possible. In an endowed institution the board usually is self-perpetuating.

3. The members of managing boards of institutions should be representative of the supporting membership and of the territory in which the organization functions.

The point of view of the physician, lawyer, business man, house-keeper, teacher, and others with special training is needed in the conduct of the institution. There should be both men and women on the board.

*4. The governing board is the responsible governing body. If its membership is large, an executive committee may be elected, with the officers of the board as officers *ex officio* of the executive committee.*

¹ Conference on the Care of Dependent Children, Washington, D. C., January 25, 26, 1909, Proceedings, p. 11. Sixtieth Congress, second session, Senate Document No. 721, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. (Out of print; available in libraries.) The conclusions of the conference were reprinted as Appendix A of Foster-Home Care for Dependent Children (Children's Bureau Publication No. 136 (revised), Washington, 1926). For the paragraph quoted, see p. 210 of that publication.

When the governing board is larger than 9 to 12 members, thus becoming an unwieldy body for discussion and working out of business details, an executive committee is essential.

The board should be divided into several active committees such as finance, building, purchasing, admissions, and aftercare. The chairmen of these committees should be on the executive committee.

Duties.

5. Each member of the board should attend all board meetings, visit the institution frequently, and make such studies as will aid him in making decisions wisely.

Board members should study the methods by which similar institutions are conducted and also the relation of their work to the welfare of the community, the county, and the State. They should attend conferences dealing with institutional and other child-welfare problems. They should put the development of the children ahead of financial and other considerations in the affairs of the institution.

6. The board is responsible to the public for the general policies of the institution.

The board employs without term the superintendent or executive director and is responsible to the public for the conduct of the institution. The board is directly charged with matters relating to the purchase of the plant, erection of buildings, and securing of equipment, and with the collection and supervision of the disbursement of funds (including provision for an annual audit of accounts). The legal and moral obligations of the board may be summarized as follows:

In general, the legal obligations of the board include the faithful and economical handling of funds, the careful conservation of the health, morals, and education of the children under their care, and the conscientious execution, as far as possible, of the benevolent intention of the founders.

The moral obligation of the trustees is broader than the legal obligation. It demands that the trustees shall qualify for their responsibility by careful individual study of the institution and by observation of the organization and administration of other similar institutions. It demands that they shall not only take thought for the health of the children and for their proper clothing, feeding, and housing, but that they shall have regard also to the happiness of the children and their development into wholesome and normal beings * * *.

The moral obligation of a board of trustees is not restricted to the children only. It extends * * * to the homes and relatives from whom they come. It extends also to the employees of the institution. It is a part of their duty not only to select faithful and conscientious people, but to see to it that they receive such compensation and have provided for them such opportunities and such living conditions as to enable them to discharge properly the duties for which they are employed.²

7. The board or executive committee should work out policies and plans in meetings with the superintendent. They should delegate to the superintendent the full responsibility for the execution of the plans and details of administration (except raising funds and equipping the plant).

The superintendent is directly responsible to the board or executive committee, not to individual members of the board nor to other

² Hart, Hastings H.: *The Job of Being a Trustee*, pp. 4, 5. Russell Sage Foundation Monograph No. 1. New York, 1915.

committees. After his plans have been approved by the board, he should be allowed to carry them out as long as he is found competent.

Any criticisms of the superintendent or suggestions for changes in his policies should be brought before the executive committee with the superintendent present. When a decision has been reached the superintendent should be required to put the will of the board into effect. If he is unwilling to do so, he must be replaced by another superintendent. The morale of an institution may be destroyed and a competent superintendent forced to resign because board members, officers, or committees usurp the powers of the executive and are guilty of unwarranted meddling. Through the superintendent's reports to the board, frequent visits of board members to the institution, and the cooperation of members and special committees with the superintendent, the quality and competency of the superintendent may be ascertained, and needed changes in the administration may then be brought to the attention of the executive committee.

Committees of the board may assist the superintendent to carry out constructive plans by cooperating with him in the accomplishment of plans and by making helpful suggestions.

THE STAFF

The personnel of the staff of an institution necessarily depends upon the size of the institution and the kind of work which it attempts to do. The workers along special lines, such as physicians, nurses, dentists, psychologist or psychiatrist, teachers, and recreation supervisor, are suggested in other chapters of this handbook. The most usual and immediately necessary members of the staff and their duties are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Executive head (superintendent).

8. A superintendent needs to have training and experience that equip him for his duties and to be temperamentally adapted to work with children.

The man or woman chosen to direct an institution for children should be well educated, preferably having college training. Experience in general social work is very desirable. He should possess executive ability and be energetic and resourceful, and his character must be above reproach. He needs to be alive to the progress being made in child-caring work and able to select and adopt those measures which will be of most value to the children cared for by the institution. He must have the educational approach and the vision to plan for the development of children as individuals.

The superintendent should give nine-tenths of his time to the children and to the staff. His *direct* contact with the human side and problems of the children in the institution is very valuable. He must be freed from as much office routine as possible.*

9. The superintendent should plan and direct, with the cooperation of the board, all affairs of the institution except the raising of its funds. His duties include especially the following:

* Statement made by Leon Goldrich, M. D., superintendent of the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society, Pleasantville, N. Y.

(a) Responsibility for buying all supplies. (In the larger institutions this work should be done by a business manager responsible to the superintendent.)

(b) Attending meetings of the board and submitting regular written reports of his work. This report should be followed by a discussion of the details of his policies so that there may be a complete understanding and agreement on the plans and purposes of the administration by the board and the superintendent.

(c) Assisting the board to understand the social problems involved in the admission, discharge, and training of children.

(d) Employing the other members of the staff and assuming responsibility for their work.

(e) Studying the needs of the children in the institution and learning through conferences, visits, and study the most progressive method of caring for them.

(f) Conducting weekly staff meetings for explanation and discussion of such methods and for hearing outside speakers discuss social and institutional problems.

(g) Providing for frequent personal conferences with members of his staff and with the children; seeking to create a spirit of cheerfulness and good fellowship and mutual trust.

(h) Providing educational and recreational facilities for the staff, such as specialized library, at least one full day a week of relief from duty, and at least two weeks' annual vacation with pay.

The supervisory staff.

10. The selection of persons of adequate training and desirable personality to be placed in immediate charge of the children is the most important single factor in providing for their character development (see pp. 64-65).

This is probably the point at which children's institutions are most likely to fail. The idea that any able-bodied man or woman who is willing to undertake the task can be trusted to take charge of children has been tragically widespread. The general scale of salaries paid has been too low to attract people with the degree of culture and education needed. No investment which institutions can make for the welfare of their wards is more important than that necessary to obtain persons of the right kind of personality and training.

All workers with children should have enough academic training to furnish an intelligent background for their special work. Teachers should have normal-school training or its equivalent. Experience in general social work, such as family case work and specialized social work for children, is of value to the supervisory staff, as is also experience in teaching.

Women are needed to supervise the activities of girls and small boys, but a man should be employed to direct at least part of the activities of older boys, since they especially need the association and example of men.

The following minimum requirements for members of the supervisory staff have been suggested:

Good health.

Training and experience which give an understanding of the needs of childhood and a sympathy with modern social-work policies.

A background which gives an appreciation of culture.

A youthful point of view.

Stability of character and ethical principles. Children are very keen to detect the weakness of a vacillating person.

An innate sense of humor.⁴

11. The necessary attention to the care and training of the children can not be given unless the supervisory staff is adequate.

When the group is larger than 12 children the cottage mother should have an assistant. If the institution includes a "baby cottage," a nurse and two assistants are needed for every group of 25 children under 3 years of age.

When one person has entire charge of a cottage one relief cottage mother may be needed for every three cottages, depending on the number of days off duty given to the regular house mother. If a cottage mother and an assistant are assigned to each group of 25, the proportionate number of relief workers need not be so high, since one of the regular workers can relieve the other during brief absences from the cottage.

One or more adults should be employed to do the heavy cleaning in a group of cottages.

12. It is the duty of the board and superintendent to make ample provision for the comfort and relaxation of the staff.

Suitable living and recreation rooms, toilets, and baths should be provided. Such provisions benefit both the staff and the children.

Among desirable working conditions for the supervisors there must be freedom from the fatigue of too long hours, sufficient relief from the monotony of institutional care, sufficient diversity of experience both inside the home and in the general community life so as to maintain mental, social, and physical flexibility and buoyancy and health.⁵

Field agent or social worker.

13. A person who has had special training in social investigation and case work is needed to make the inquiry into conditions governing admission, to keep in touch with families of children admitted, and to supervise children who have been placed out or returned to their homes.

Training and experience in social work, a knowledge of the fundamental principles of child care, and good judgment and tact are essential for this position.

Business division.

14. There should be a business division or department, or at least a committee of the governing board, to deal with all matters affecting the physical care of buildings, equipment, plant, purchases, and general office work.

Good organization demands that those who are appointed by the board and the superintendent to take care of the growth and development of the children shall not be submerged by a number of details which can easily be delegated to others. Of course, the super-

⁴ Child Welfare League of America Bulletin [New York], vol. 3, no. 3 (Mar. 15, 1924), p. 2.

⁵ A Study in Institutional Child Care; a survey of the Marks Nathan Jewish Orphan Home, made by the research bureau of the Jewish Philanthropies of Chicago, p. 69. Chicago, 1921. See also Institutional Household Administration, by Lydia Southard, p. 39 (J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1923).

intendant should know all about the institution and be held responsible for the proper working of every department.

The record keeping and clerical work of an institution are very important, and only people who are qualified to do the work in the best way should be employed. The standard of training and experience required for an institution clerical worker must be at least as high as the standard for a similar worker in a business office.

Housekeeping staff and farm workers.

15. Household and farm workers should be persons of desirable character as well as expert in their lines of work.

A large institution should have a head matron or general housekeeper to oversee all housekeeping arrangements. If much farm work is done there should be a head farmer responsible directly to the superintendent for the management of farm, garden, dairy, and transportation.

The people who are engaged in the routine household or farm duties not only should be able to do their work well but must be of normal mentality and free from tuberculosis or venereal disease (see p. 45). Workers must be of good character, because the children learn from the example set by these helpers as well as from supervisors. It is best to have the institution so situated that general workers may live outside the institution if this is possible. Otherwise their association with the children during the leisure time may present serious problems.

For list of references on administration see Chapter XV, page 122.

Chapter III.—THE PLANT

CHARACTER OF THE INSTITUTION

1. Two entirely different problems need to be considered in discussion of the plant. The first is the building of new institutions or rebuilding of old ones in accordance with modern ideas; the second is the remodeling and adapting of buildings now in use so that better conditions and more individual care may be provided for the children.

Many large congregate buildings are in use to-day, much as the boards of some of these institutions housed in them would like to replace them with cottages. Since the capital invested in some of these buildings is very large, abandonment may not be practicable for years to come. Conditions approximating those found in a cottage institution may be provided if the buildings are remodeled so that small groups of children similar to those living in cottages may have separate quarters and more individualized supervision than is otherwise possible. This is called the group system of care.

2. The basic policy of the institution should be determined before grounds or plant are decided upon. The following points especially affect the decisions to be made in regard to the character of the buildings:

(a) Is the institution to be used primarily for a home for children for an extended time or primarily as a receiving station from which children will be placed out in private homes?

(b) What are the proportions of children of the two sexes and of different ages likely to be cared for? This should be estimated as closely as possible.

(c) Are the children to be taught in the institution or at near-by public schools? (See Ch. XI, p. 88.)

(d) Are the cottages to be operated on the basis of mixed ages or of classified ages? Must negro children be housed and educated separately from white children?

(e) Are special types of need to be met, such as the need for care of cardiac and orthopedic cases?

(f) Are babies to be received and cared for in numbers warranting a babies' building? (See Ch. V, p. 37.)

(g) Is the institution to meet the temporary boarding requirements of the community?

(h) Are children to be received from other placing societies to be diagnosed mentally and physically and to be built up pending placement?

LOCATION

3. The new institution (or one rebuilding) should seek for the best possible combination of community conditions and physical conditions.

Just as the neighborhood and community are to be considered in choosing a family home, so must they be considered when selecting a location for an institution. The main points in connection with location are:

- (a) Good schools (see Ch. XI, pp. 87-94).
- (b) Churches (see Ch. X, p. 79).
- (c) Recreational facilities for the children and the staff (see Ch. XII, pp. 95-101).
- (d) Transportation facilities.
- (e) Desirability from the point of view of the staff worker as well as from that of the children.

The site should be selected by people who are acquainted with the needs of an institution for dependent children. Ground given or bequeathed is often badly located or for some reason is not well adapted for the purpose for which it has been offered.

4. The location which meets the requirements for the average institution is one in the suburbs of a city or town where sufficient land can be obtained accessible to schools, churches, and other community activities, and close enough to connect with the water and sewerage systems.

With such a location the institution is accessible, the services of physicians and hospitals are available, and recreation facilities are within easy reach; yet at the same time enough ground can be procured at a reasonable price to permit gardens and large playgrounds.

A location in a good residence district of a city enables the very small institution to have less of the institutional atmosphere; the children attend public schools and take part in the activities of the community.

5. The location of the plant should be determined by the following items:

(a) *Community life.*—Opportunity to mingle naturally with children from homes in the city or village and to become part of the community life. This is greatly affected by the location and should be a primary consideration.

(b) *Educational facilities.*—Access to primary, secondary, and technical educational facilities (unless the institution is to provide all these degrees of education). (See Ch. XI, pp. 87-94.)

(c) *Water.*—Assurance of an abundant and constant supply of pure water.

(d) *Sewage.*—Assurance that sewage disposal can be provided efficiently and at a reasonable cost.

(e) *Accessibility.*—Easy access to a trolley or bus line, so that the institution can be reached easily by relatives and friends and be within a reasonable distance of recreation and entertainment for the staff.

(f) *Fire protection.*—Proximity to a city equipped with ample fire-fighting apparatus. The institution will thus have protection in addition to that afforded by its own fire-fighting facilities.

(g) *Drainage.*—Assurance that all surface water can be carried off quickly.

(h) *Supplies.*—A location where railroad switching facilities can be provided (if the institution is large).

(i) *Playgrounds.*—Assurance of abundant and level playgrounds. Not less than one-twentieth of an acre per child is desirable for this purpose alone.

(j) *Garden.*—Space for garden plot for each cottage or small group of children (see p. 99).

(k) *Soil fertility.*—This is a minor matter if only garden plots are to be provided, but it is an important consideration if farming is contemplated.

PLOT PLAN

6. After the general policy has been adopted and the location chosen in accordance with the basic policy, a plot plan should be worked out which will show the location of all buildings to be built at present and in the future.

The plot plan must await a decision on the type of buildings, character of heating, and sewage disposal. The location of each building should conform to the operating policy, and each building should occupy a sightly place if possible. Changing conditions in the care of dependent children make it unwise to plan on the theory of what the population may be years in advance.

A competent architect should be selected and decisions on technical matters left to him. There is a possibility that the architect in his interest in the technical side of construction, in his efforts to build attractive buildings, and in ignorance of the special needs of an institution, may plan unsuitable buildings. Therefore a person who knows of the needs of institutions should consult with the architect frequently when the plans are being drawn. Buildings can be both attractive and convenient if sufficient study is given to the problem. Local and State building inspectors should be consulted so that conformity to legal requirements will be insured. Assistance in this line can be secured from the State department of public welfare or board of charities.

GROUNDS

7. Shade trees, lawns, and flowers are essential for the comfort and the esthetic education of the children.

Fruit trees, berry bushes, and vines are desirable when space will permit.

8. Playgrounds should be large, level, and well laid out, with room for equipment suited to children of different ages (see p. 100).

There should be some play apparatus and equipment for games, also free space for active play for both younger and older children where neither group will interfere with the other. Swimming pools or at least wading pools should be provided if possible. These may be made by damming natural streams or by constructing cement pools.

9. Some place should be provided where the children can keep pet animals (see p. 99).

FARM

10. Country or suburban institutions of certain types provide ground enough so that all the children may be taught gardening and

poultry raising and the boys adapted to farming may receive pre-vocational training in that subject (see p. 93).

The attempt to operate a farm by means of the labor of the children is never successful if sufficient time is devoted to education. Only a small number of boys and girls in institutions for dependents are old enough to do effective farm work. As a general rule the education of the boys in farm work can be accomplished with a comparatively small acreage. A farm is advisable only if it is considered an economic asset to be operated with hired labor rather than regarded as a means of vocational training.

It must be kept in mind that the agriculture taught by a children's institution is designed to convey to all the children chiefly three things: Knowledge of the earth and its relation to the life of man to whom it gives subsistence; appreciation and respect for those who till the soil; and a general knowledge of gardening and the care and use of domestic animals.

Opportunity for prevocational training is also to be given to the boy whose ability and tastes lead him to become a farmer. Such a boy would need to spend his years previous to high school in learning only the simple lessons of farm work, spending most of his time in school with the other children, developing his intelligence and laying such a foundation of general knowledge as a modern farmer should have. After finishing the grade school he should be sent to an agricultural high school. He can then make his plans to attend an agricultural college if he so desires.

It must be realized that agricultural as well as any other specialized training given below high school is in no real sense vocational but only preparatory to specialized training.

11. Sufficient ground for raising the fruit and vegetables to be used in the institution and for raising feed for stock is desirable.

This insures at a relatively small cost the adequate amount of fresh and staple vegetables and fruits which are necessary for children. It also enables the institution to keep cows in order that the children may have the necessary quantities of fresh milk.

12. A competent farm superintendent is necessary for every institution conducting a farm.

Careful check of the cost of the maintenance and operation of the farm should be kept. Unless carefully managed, an institution's farm may easily become an expense out of proportion to its use. Only a competent superintendent can manage the farm to the best advantage.

13. In addition to the farm superintendent a sufficient number of farm laborers should be employed so that the education and training of the children need not be subordinated to the cultivation of the land.

A number of institutions have considered it profitable not only to do farming sufficient for their own needs but also to raise products for sale. There is then a danger of exploiting the children by keeping them out of school half the day or compelling growing boys to work in the early morning hours or for such long hours that they are too tired to apply themselves to their school work when they attend. This can be safeguarded by restricting the work of the children to the gardening or sometimes to the milking.

Play is a necessity to childhood (see p. 93). Since a children's institution is established primarily to raise children, not farm products, no great help in farm work should be expected from the children.

14. Buildings and equipment should be adequate for practical use by the farm superintendent and helpers.

The number and type of buildings and kind of equipment needed will vary in accordance with the agricultural conditions, which differ greatly throughout the United States. A special set of plans will be required, since the kind of crops and the method of raising them, the type and size of the farm, and the kinds of materials to be used for the necessary buildings must all be taken into consideration.

For specific and detailed information concerning these needs the United States Department of Agriculture should be consulted. Guidance concerning local conditions can always be obtained from State departments or colleges of agriculture and county farm agents.

15. The dairy should be built and equipped according to the needs of the institution and in accordance with standards set by the State department of agriculture in the respective States.

Registered stock should be bought at the beginning. In the long run this proves economical as well as advantageous in providing a good grade of milk for the children.

BUILDINGS

Buildings have been planned in accordance with two general schemes—cottages and congregate, with adaptations (see p. 26). Whatever type of building is used, it is inadvisable to have children sleep or attend school in buildings more than two stories high.

Construction and materials.

16. Simplicity, safety, and durability are the chief factors to be considered in outside construction. Cottages should be planned to have a variety of exteriors, as in the case of private homes, but they should be made to harmonize so that an artistic effect will be produced.

(a) Facility in maintaining sanitary conditions should be one of the guiding principles in the construction of buildings.

(b) Exterior wall surfaces should conform to general local practice in dwelling-house construction, except that in two-story buildings the walls should invariably be so constructed as to prevent rapid spread of fire (this applies also to all partitions).

(c) Outside construction and surfaces should be simple and durable so that upkeep costs may be kept as low as possible.

(d) The old-fashioned guillotine double-hung windows are most reliable and satisfactory.

(e) No baseboards should be used unless they can be so constructed as to obviate crevices in which vermin may hide.

(f) Floors in living rooms, dining rooms, and dormitories should be of hard wood—maple, oak, or long-leaf yellow pine—ripsawed. If concrete construction has been used, a linoleum covering is advisable. Tile, terrazzo, cement, mastic, or linoleum will be serviceable for floors of kitchens, pantries, hand laundries, and back entrances.

Since bathrooms, wash rooms, and toilets need to be cleaned daily, and the dining room and kitchen need to be cleaned at least three times a week, their floors should be of a material which can be scrubbed or cleaned easily. Battleship linoleum or composite floors are especially recommended for these.²

(g) On walls and ceilings a hard plaster should be used. It is advisable to use cement plaster to a height of 4 feet on the walls. The ceilings of basements should be made fireproof.

Fire protection.

17. *The location of heating plants, the number, kind, and location of fire escapes, the assurance of sufficient water pressure, and the matter of electric wiring must be considered.*

(a) When a separate heating plant is used in each cottage it should be placed in a fireproof room.

(b) Fire escapes are needed on all buildings higher than two stories; and there should be at least two exits from all second stories. These must be so arranged that the children can escape from any part of the building and from any room. Unless there are several exits, fire escapes must be placed on all buildings higher than one story. They should not be placed against the side of the building but should be so arranged that the children need not pass by windows on the way down. Fire escapes should be of a type to comply with the State building code.

(c) Smoke-proof fire escapes of the tower type are necessary for large assembly rooms above the first floor. Other fire escapes may be of the ordinary stair type. Fire chutes should be provided from dormitory windows (first floor) to the ground for cottages in which children under 5 years of age are cared for.

(d) Chemical fire extinguishers should be placed in all halls.

(e) All doors should open outward, and all outside doors should be equipped with automatic fire locks.

(f) There should be regular inspection of electric wiring by city fire departments when available, and strict conformity to local fire ordinances.

(g) If water pressure is not sufficient for fire protection it should be supplemented by an elevated tank or by a pressure tank.

(h) Fire drills should be practiced once in two weeks.

(i) Trash must not be allowed to accumulate in the basement or elsewhere in the building.

SANITATION

18. *City water supply should be used when it is available and declared by authorities to be safe. The institution which can not connect with a city system should have the services of a sanitary engineer and construct an adequate plant under expert direction.*

It is almost impossible to obtain city water for institutions situated outside of cities. This necessitates the establishment of a private supply, the sources depending on the location of the institution.

² Southard, Lydia: *Institutional Household Administration*, pp. 67-69. J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1923.

Country institutions can have retaining or pressure tanks supplied from deep wells or springs, if unpolluted, and the water can be piped to the buildings.

19. *Institutions having private water supplies should have the water analyzed by the State department of health once in six months.*

Frequent analysis is the only method of determining the purity of a water supply. A surface supply should be analyzed once a day, but less frequent analyses are required when the source is deeper.

20. *A connection with the city sewage system furnishes the most convenient method of sewage disposal. If the institution must build and maintain its own disposal plant, the services of an expert are needed.*

Methods of sewage disposal are such that only experts can determine in any particular case which type of purification process should be installed. In certain cases sewage may be disposed of by dilution in streams, but it takes an expert to tell whether any stream is of suitable size and whether conditions permit sewage thus taken from any institution to be disposed of so that a nuisance will not arise. If this method is not feasible some other must be employed, depending in every case on the extent to which the final affluent must be purified before finally being disposed of and allowed to run into streams or creeks.

In the installing and maintaining of sewage plants care should be taken to conform closely to local sanitary regulations. Regular inspections should be made by health authorities.

21. *Flush toilets should be provided in the various buildings; they should be accessible to dormitories, playrooms, and playgrounds.*

Country institutions which can not avail themselves of adequate city water and sewage disposal should install such plants as are indicated in the preceding discussion, with indoor flush-toilet connections. Until such plants can be installed in some of the poorer country institutions at least septic tanks should be provided. Plans for these usually can be obtained from State bureaus of sanitary engineering. On no account are open-pit privies permissible.

22. *Lavatory, bath, and toilet facilities must be adequate and sanitary. These rooms should be so placed as to receive direct sunlight at some period of the day because of the value of sunlight as a disinfectant.*

Plumbing and fixtures.—Cheap plumbing should be avoided. It is expensive in the end and usually causes insanitary conditions.

Lavatory facilities.—One bowl with running hot and cold water to four children, and in a separate room from bath, toilet, and dressing room (unless the institution can afford to equip its dressing alcoves so that each has a separate lavatory).

Bathtubs.—One tub or shower to six or eight children, each in a separate compartment. Showers are replacing bathtubs in many institutions, because this method of bathing is considered more sanitary; but it is essential to have one or more tubs for use when children are admitted and for emergencies that may arise. Elevated tubs should be provided for children too small to bathe themselves. Stationary foot baths are needed when showers are used in place of bathtubs.

Toilets.—One toilet to eight or ten children. Many institutions which formerly had urinals in boys' cottages have discarded them as insanitary. Each toilet should be in a separate compartment, not only to inculcate modesty but also to avoid any moral hazard. Toilets to be used by small children should be of proper height and size.

23. *Screens are needed on all windows, doors, and ventilators.*

A 16-mesh wire screen protects against mosquitoes as well as flies. Copper screen is best. If wire screens are used, they should be painted yearly. In very damp climates banana paint is effective in protecting the wire against rust.

24. *Garbage containers should be ample in size and kept tightly closed, so that no flies, rats, cats, or dogs can have access to the garbage while it is awaiting disposal.*

25. *The dining room, kitchen, pantries, laundries, and all toilet rooms should be cleaned frequently.*

The floors of dining rooms, kitchens, pantries, laundries, and all toilet rooms should be scrubbed often. The dining room and kitchen should be mopped at least three times a week. Bathrooms, wash rooms, and toilets must have a thorough cleansing every day. Bath-tubs should be cleaned after every bath.

Hardwood floors should be cleaned with oil mops and treated frequently with oil and wax.

26. *Bedding should be disinfected by sunning frequently for several hours. It should be aired one or more hours daily.*

Bed springs and frames should be washed monthly with hot water and soap and sunned. When a disinfectant solution is used the danger from vermin is minimized.*

LIGHTING

27. *The minimum window area allowed should equal at least one-fifth of the floor area.*

In climates in which there are many cloudy or foggy days the minimum window area should be at least one-fourth or even one-third of the floor area. It is much easier to shut out surplus light on very bright days than to obtain enough light on the dull days. A large amount of natural light will obviate the too frequent need of using artificial light during the day time in school rooms and libraries.

28. *Buildings in which children study or work (as schoolhouses or shops) should be so arranged that the greatest number of rooms can receive direct sunlight during the day.*

This would necessitate that such buildings face southeast or southwest when possible. All the buildings should be planned to have as many rooms receive some direct sunlight as can be arranged. This is not only for the sake of adequate lighting but also because of the salutary effect of the sunlight itself (see p. 51).

29. *Electricity furnishes the most desirable artificial light, and it is the most convenient and the safest.*

Institutions which can not connect with established power plants usually find it practicable to install plants of their own.

* *Ibid.*, p. 193.

Reading lamps are needed for study rooms. The number, type, and strength of lights required throughout a building should be determined by an expert on lighting.

30. *The seats in study rooms and class rooms should be so arranged that the light will come from the left. Window shades are needed to regulate the amount of light admitted and also to insure privacy.*

HEATING

31. *Hot-water or steam or hot-air heating systems may be furnished by a central heating plant or by furnaces in the individual cottages.*

When a hot-water or steam heating system is installed a central heating plant in a separate building is possible. Having a central plant minimizes the danger from fire and keeps the temperature of all the buildings approximately the same. Many authorities consider a separate heating system in each building preferable because it does not require the services of a skilled engineer as does a central plant and more freedom is possible in the location of the cottages—whereas having a central heating plant is likely to necessitate their being closer together.

Individual heating plants should be placed in fireproof basement rooms.

If stoves are used to heat rooms, they should be inclosed in cast-iron or other metal casings to prevent accidents. The heat of stoves is very uneven, and a more modern method should be adopted if possible.

32. *Open fireplaces or grates are desirable additions to any heating system, especially for cottage living rooms.*

Fires in grates or open fireplaces take the chill from the air on cool days; and during the winter they are excellent aids to good ventilation. They should have screens to prevent accidents.

When it is necessary to use gas the grate must have a flue to carry off the products of combustion.

Electricity as a heating agent is coming into use in some localities. If cheap power is available, the use of electricity is desirable.

33. *The temperature should be maintained at 65 to 70° in all rooms except sleeping rooms.*

In some climates the sleeping rooms may be unheated, provided the walls are not allowed to become damp. A heating system prevents dampness, as floors and walls are kept dry by the pipes of the heating plant. In cold climates, if children sleep on porches or if the dormitories are very cold in winter, sleeping bags or hot-water bottles should be provided. If the sleeping room is unheated, separate dressing rooms with heat are necessary. Recreational rooms may have a temperature of 60° or even less at times, depending upon whether the recreation consists of active games like basket ball or quiet games like checkers.

A wet-bulb thermometer (hygrometer) hung in each room where children sit, removed from sources of heat and open windows, is the only safe guide. For obvious reasons the supervisors should not be allowed to regulate temperature for children according to

their own feelings. The hygrometer indicates not only the temperature (Fahrenheit), but also the moisture in the atmosphere of the room. A thermostat in every room will prevent tampering with temperatures if supervisors are properly instructed.

VENTILATION

34. Ventilation is necessary to preserve the right temperature, the proper amount of humidity, and the desirable movement of the air.

Badly ventilated rooms produce discomfort and injure the health chiefly because their temperature is too high and the air is not sufficiently in motion.⁴ The windows of rooms where children sit should be opened wide several times a day. Even though this temporarily reduces the temperature the complete change of air is beneficial.

35. Air should be admitted to rooms in such manner that it will be clean and warm but not hot. It must be moist and kept moving.

Too great dryness irritates the eyes, nose, and throat, and spreads coughs and colds. A saturation of 50 to 80 per cent is considered normal. The body suffers in air above or below this normal saturation.

Special steam valves are necessary in a steam-heating apparatus in order to keep the air moist. The steam valves may be purchased almost anywhere, but in their absence moisture may be furnished in a steam-heated room by hanging a very damp cloth behind the radiators or placing a pan of water on a radiator. Air-heating apparatus can be equipped with an automatic regulator, but this type of heating plant is not well adapted to an institution.

It is now recognized that a room is not properly ventilated unless there are currents of air. Even the standard amount of ventilation is inadequate unless some means of cross ventilation is provided.

Cross ventilation in schoolrooms or libraries can be obtained by means of "breeze windows" placed near the ceiling at the back or right side of the room. These windows should be hinged on the lower side, adjustable, and covered with opaque shades.

Window boards made of wood, glass, or burlap should be placed in wintertime at the bottom of open windows in schoolrooms or other rooms where children sit, to prevent direct breezes from striking the children.

36. If the window space equals at least one-fifth of the floor area, it is adequate for ventilation as well as for lighting. Arrangement should be made for cross currents of air in all rooms.

Large dormitories should have windows on three sides. Cross ventilation can be accomplished by placing windows and other ventilators on opposite sides of rooms. Ventilator doors or wall ventilators can be used if it is impracticable to have windows on more than one side. Care should be taken to provide cross ventilation for kitchens to get rid of the odor of food and for laundries to get rid of steam and to keep the room cool. In all buildings not so arranged a ventilating fan should be installed.

⁴ Ventilation. Report of the New York State Commission on Ventilation, pp. 219, 519. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York City, 1923.

37. In sleeping rooms 500 cubic feet of air space should be allowed for each child, and beds should be at least 3 feet apart at the sides. For an infirmary 1,000 cubic feet of air space are required per patient (see p. 48).

In sleeping rooms not less than 10 feet high a floor space of 50 square feet is required for every child. With beds 3 feet apart at sides this requires an aisle space of about 4 feet at the ends. It does not permit the placing of beds end to end (as is sometimes done in crowded institutions).

For list of references on the plant see Chapter XV, page 122.

Chapter IV.—THE BUILDINGS

TYPES OF BUILDING

1. There are several types of building used for institutions for dependent children:

The cottage type.—A cottage institution has the children cared for in separate buildings housing from 12 to 20 children each.

The congregate type.—A congregate institution cares for children in buildings housing more than a small family group. Congregate institutions may be remodeled to provide for separate living quarters for small groups of children within one large building in a so-called "group system."

The semicottage, or semicongregate type.—These include many variations of the cottage and congregate plant, usually housing groups of 25 to 40 children.

The pavilion type.—The pavilion type of building consists of two or more buildings connected by corridors. Each unit may house a group similar to those found in the individual cottages.

Receiving homes.—The building usually resembles one of the cottages in a cottage institution or it may consist of a group of cottages or be a small semicongregate building. It is used for very temporary care of children, often pending placement in family homes.

THE COTTAGE TYPE

2. A system in which 12 to 20 children—preferably not more than 12—form a family group and live in a separate cottage, thus receiving individual attention and careful training, is recommended.

The cottage system enables the children to take part in all activities of the household much as in a normal family, with a near approach to home life and individual care.

In a small group an opportunity is given for informality and individual freedom of action. This must be replaced by much more formal discipline and group behavior in the large group.

By helping in the cottage the children can learn how a family home is managed.

A housemother, with an assistant if needed, presides over the family and tries to make the approach to normal home life as close as possible for each child. Children who have not grown up in normal homes find it difficult to adjust themselves later to family life. The every-day customs of family life and the necessary social adjustments can best be made a part of the children's training and experience under the cottage system. Such individual attention as is necessary for the inculcation of good health habits (see p. 49) can usually be given better in a cottage than in larger residence units.

3. Cottage groups in which there are children of various ages are desirable for the following reasons:

(a) Families can be better kept together, brothers living with brothers and sisters with sisters.

(b) The older and younger children assume more readily the relationship of brothers and sisters.

(c) A child hard to adjust may be changed from one cottage to another until one is found which best suits his needs. (When careful thought is given to the original placement the changes will be less frequent.)

(d) A child once adjusted with the house mother and cottage group which seem best suited to him may remain in that particular cottage as long as he is in the institution. Thus the conditions in a normal family are more nearly approached.

4. *Several types of cottage institutions are in use at the present time.*

(a) In one type of cottage institution everything related to an individual home, as sleeping rooms, living rooms, dining room, and kitchen is included in the cottage, so that each cottage is a complete housekeeping unit.

(b) In another type of cottage institution all the food is prepared in a central kitchen but is served in the dining rooms of the cottages. The food may be transported in thermos containers or is carried to the cottage and there reheated in a kitchenette provided for that purpose. Breakfasts are sometimes prepared in the cottage kitchenette by the children. In favor of this plan may be cited the difficulty of finding cottage matrons who are qualified and willing to direct the cooking or who can do so without neglecting other essentials in the care of the children. The desirability of having the cooking done in the cottage depends largely on the question of whether this will mean training for the children or drudgery for both children and housemother. In cottages for older girls there is a special advantage in having a complete housekeeping unit if the group is small enough for the kitchen work to resemble that of an ordinary family; otherwise it may be better to provide classes for training in cooking.

(c) Some cottage institutions have a central dining room as well as a central kitchen. These should install dishwashing machines and other labor-saving devices; and most of the work should be performed by adults, since this work done on a large scale is merely drudgery and lacks educational value.

5. *There are certain advantages in the one-story type of cottage and others in the two-story type.*

The relative cost of the two types of cottage has not been determined absolutely. The claim has been made that one-story cottages are more expensive. But lighter foundations and framing may be used in a one-story structure; and no space is lost in adjusting a lower floor to an upper one. The saving in these two items, together with the lack of necessity for stair space, offsets much of the greater expense of roofing and foundations for a one-story building.

The fact that a two-story cottage requires less ground space may be an important consideration for institutions situated in cities, where land values are high. This type of building is likely to be better adapted to the need of small dormitories or single bedrooms

for the older children. Some of the disadvantages of the two-story house are less serious when the older boys and girls can relieve the housemother of some of the housework, especially by taking care of their own rooms.

6. The one-story cottage is administered more advantageously to children and housemother than is the two-story cottage, and its fire danger is less.

The advocates of the one-story cottage in preference to the two-story house favor this type of building not only because of its greater safety from fire hazards but also because unless the children are very young (see p. 13) one housemother can care for the group if some of the cleaning and other heavy work is done by day employees.

The one-story cottage has the following advantages: First, it simplifies the problem of cottage administration, having the children on one floor, where they can be readily supervised by the cottage matron; second, it removes the fire risk, and this obviates the necessity of fireproof construction; third, it facilitates the outdoor life of the little children, who can go in and out readily; fourth, it diminishes labor and fatigue of the housemother, enabling her to give her entire strength to her proper work. It is surprising to discover how much of the strength of the housemother may be consumed in simply climbing up and down stairs between the first floor and the second floor and the first floor and the basement.¹

7. The following recommendations are offered for the remodeling of buildings and the planning of new cottages (see also pp. 19-20):

- (a) Be sure that a convenient arrangement of rooms is adopted.
- (b) Provide suitable and comfortable living accommodations for the staff as well as for the children.
- (c) Make possible some degree of privacy for both the children and the staff.
- (d) Make provision for study, for both active and quiet play, and for the different interests of both younger and older children.
- (e) Arrange for folding doors between living room and dining room so that the dining room may be used for an evening study room.
- (f) Plan buildings and rooms so that they may be well ventilated, well heated, and easily cleaned.
- (g) Do not plan to use the basement for anything except heating plant and storage of vegetables.
- (h) Have a rear or side entrance on the main floor with provision near it for wraps and overshoes.
- (i) Have some lavatories, toilets, and drinking water accessible from the playroom and from the rear or side entrance.
- (j) Provide abundant storage and closet facilities.
- (k) Allow floor space in accordance with the following figures: Dining room, 15 square feet per chair; living room, 30 square feet per child; dormitories, 50 square feet per bed (see p. 25); single bedrooms, 70 square feet per bed.
- (l) In a two-story cottage have the dormitories, toilets, and supervisor's bedroom on the same floor, and so arranged that the supervisors' or matrons' rooms are near the sleeping quarters of the children.

¹ Hastings H. Hart, in letter in *The Organization and Construction of a Child-Caring Institution* (a report on construction plans for the Pacific Hebrew Orphan Asylum Appendix, p. 63). San Francisco, Calif., 1919.

(m) Provide plenty of porch space. At least one porch should face southwest (see p. 51).

The following statements are of interest in regard to the building of cottages to accommodate groups of 20 children:

Experience has shown that in certain details architects need explicit instruction which must be given precedence over all technical and esthetic considerations which do not affect safety. The cottage must be easy of access, both front and back, for children and for vehicles. There must be quick and convenient passage from the sitting room or playroom to and from the open. The arrangement must be such that much tramping in and out, even in wet weather, shall not upset or track up the whole house. There must be good contrivances for holding children's individual supplies of books and school materials, separate provision for safe-keeping individual toys and treasures, and space for the safe bestowal and easy use of bulky possessions like bicycles, coasters, or big dolls and doll houses. Wardrobes and toilet articles make yet another demand for individual accommodations. Again, the living-room floor must be so planned as to allow 20 children to read, write, and study together in comfort, without getting in each other's way. It should also give facilities for open continuity of the rooms, so that the whole floor space may be available for entertainment and dancing. Sleeping quarters should give the privacy and groupings of life in a large family—no dormitories, but rooms for single occupants or small groups. Good cross ventilation, especially of kitchens and bedrooms, must be given special care.

* * * There should be a single room connected with the housemother's bedroom, which can be used to isolate a suspect or observe an ailing child of either sex. Bathing and sanitary facilities must receive most anxious care as regards size of fittings, accessibility for use and observation, privacy, adequacy, safety, and ease of repair. Storage space for dishes, linens, clothing stocks, household goods, cleaning utensils, and raw, cooked, or preserved food-stuffs, must be ample, well ventilated, and dry.²

8. Small dormitories accommodating six or eight single beds are satisfactory for the younger children, but single rooms or rooms large enough for three beds are more desirable for children of adolescent age.

Cubicles with 6-foot partitions may be used instead of single rooms, but they should be large enough not to be stuffy, and the partitions should not be dust-catching-curtains. This permits privacy and requires less space and expense in construction.

Sleeping porches are desirable for summer use; in some climates they may be used throughout the year. Separate dressing rooms, preferably with alcoves for the sake of greater privacy in dressing, should adjoin large dormitories.

9. Lavatories, bathrooms, and toilets should be adjacent to the sleeping rooms or easily accessible from them (see also Sanitation, p. 20).

These rooms should be well ventilated and if possible placed so that the sun strikes them during some part of the day. The size of each room will depend upon the equipment in it and the number of children using it.

Arrangements making it possible to have privacy in the bath and toilet rooms are essential. Between the bath tubs and the toilets there should be 6-foot partitions with swinging doors in front. This, or some similar method of insuring privacy, is desirable even for

² Langer, Samuel: The Organization and Construction of a Child-Caring Institution; a report on reconstruction plans for the Pacific Hebrew Orphan Asylum, San Francisco, 1919, pp. 26, 27.

young children in order to encourage modesty and to preserve morals.

10. Clothes closets are as essential for children in institutions as for people living in normal homes.

When sufficient care is given to planning the buildings satisfactory closets can be included. One closet may be allowed for two or even three children. There should be closets for wraps in the entrance halls, and closets or wall hooks should be provided at the rear or side entrance.

11. The rooms for the daytime activities should be large enough to accommodate comfortably the group for whom they are intended.

Not all institutions need separate living rooms, libraries, and play-rooms. Under some conditions a combination of a living room and playroom, living room and library, or even living room and dining room is satisfactory. Whatever the arrangement of the rooms sufficient space is needed so that active play, quiet games, study, reading, and conversation may be carried on by different groups without too great conflict. When the library and dining room adjoin the living room, with double doors between, a large space is available for use on special occasions.

12. Playrooms should be comfortable and attractive. They must never be in the basement. They should be sunny and well ventilated.

Since the play of children is important for their development (see p. 95) a suitable room should be available for it. The living-room arrangement should lend itself to the placing of toy lockers in the room. Basement playrooms are difficult to supervise and are generally unsatisfactory.

13. The number of rooms needed for educational purposes will depend upon the use made of community resources for education.

When children attend schools and churches in the neighborhood the institution does not need formal classrooms or a chapel. If good manual training and gymnasium work are obtained in the community schools, the institution's equipment for these two purposes also may be limited. Otherwise a suitable gymnasium and some proper manual-training equipment should be provided, and an arrangement should be made for the children to have this work.

A comfortable room where the children can study in quiet is essential (see p. 90).

14. A convenient arrangement of the dining room, kitchen, and pantry is of great importance.

Much time and effort will be saved if the rooms used for the preparation and serving of food are well arranged. The pantry should be accessible from both the dining room and the kitchen, and the refrigerator should be reached easily from the kitchen.

15. The cottage kitchen should be similar to the kitchen of a private home. A central kitchen equipped with up-to-date labor-saving devices is economical but does not carry out the home idea.

There should be a good sink and refrigerator, a porcelain or zinc covered table, a good stove, and built-in cupboards. This is the minimum equipment. Cooking utensils should be fully adequate for the number of persons for whom the food is to be prepared.

16. Generous provision should be made for storing food supplies, disposing of dishes, cooking utensils, and cleaning apparatus conveniently, and keeping household linen in proper shape.³

Storeroom arrangements will depend upon the type of building, but they must be large enough so that supplies may be sorted in lots and be easy of access. If there is a central kitchen, the storeroom must allow for economical storage of large quantities of food and have adequate refrigeration for supplies which must be kept cold. Sometimes a general storeroom is used and distribution made from this to the cottages which have individual kitchens. The storeroom should have plenty of shelf space, bins properly lined with zinc or tin for cereals and other dry foods, and dark closets for jellies and canned fruits and vegetables. Ventilated racks should be supplied for keeping vegetables.

A good refrigerator with separate compartments for ice, for the milk and butter, and for other perishable foods is necessary.

Pantries should be properly lighted and ventilated; and there must be adequate shelving, both inclosed and uninclosed, and also drawer space for linen.

There should be a closet for brooms and other cleaning apparatus.

17. Storerooms for bedding and for clothing not in use may be provided either in a central place or in the separate cottages.

Storerooms should be large enough to allow clothes to be hung so that light and air will reach them. There should be plenty of shelf or drawer space for undergarments, shoes, and other articles. There must be room for storing winter clothes properly during the summer and for storing summer clothes during the winter, so that they will remain in good condition.

18. The cottage laundry should be on the first floor, not in the basement.

Individual laundries in cottages are desirable in order that the older girls may learn to launder personal clothing and small articles. The heavy house linen should always be sent to a public laundry or to the institution laundry (see p. 35).

The equipment needed in a cottage laundry should be like that found in the average home (stationary tubs, electric iron, ironing boards, hot plate, boiler, wringer, and washboard).

THE CONGREGATE TYPE

19. The congregate institution is characterized generally by large buildings for the care of children en masse, with little approach to family life.

In spite of the evils of the congregate system, which have been discussed for the past 50 years, many substantial congregate buildings have been constructed for institutions in recent years. Thousands of dependent children are in institutions of this sort, in which obviously they can not receive the degree of individual care which they should have.

It is held by some that a congregate institution can be built at less cost than accommodation for the same number of children dis-

³Southard, Lydia: *Institutional Household Administration*, pp. 150-154. J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, Pa., 1923.

tributed in cottages. This has not been proved where equal safety is provided. A congregate institution must be fireproof. The cost of fireproofing probably offsets the extra costs of separate cottages, which may be built of slow-burning material and need not be fireproof.

THE GROUP SYSTEM IN LARGE BUILDINGS

20. Adaptation of a congregate plant is possible as a temporary measure so that the children may receive more individual care. The group arrangement may be effected by remodeling the congregate building, the addition of new wings being necessary in some cases.

Plans for remodeling institutions to make possible the small-group method of care should be developed after much consideration of the existing buildings and their possibilities. Competent advice is needed on the technical problems. By reducing the number of children cared for some institutions can remodel the buildings to give satisfactory separate living quarters. Others will find it advisable both to remodel and to add especially fitted wings. Local conditions must determine the course of action to be followed.

21. The aim under the group system, as under the cottage system, is to provide physical conditions which will make possible the individual care and treatment of each child.

The children should be divided into groups of not more than 25. A smaller number is preferable. A supervisor should be assigned to each group, and separate quarters should be provided for each. A separate playroom or living room is also necessary. Two dormitories are desirable (one for the older and one for the younger children), with adjoining rooms for the group mother, so that careful supervision may be maintained night and day. Separate wash rooms, bathrooms, toilet rooms, and clothes rooms are needed. Small dining rooms are preferable and have been provided in some institutions, the food being distributed from a central kitchen. Other institutions use the central dining room.

The molding of a child's character demands intimate personal contact between each child and those who take the place of his parents. Such contact can hardly be present where children are handled in large masses, as under the old congregate system. With the passage of years there has come into existence a third type of care known as the group system. It is adaptable to buildings built on the congregate plan. Its aim is to bring the children those advantages that are to be had only when they are cared for and educated in small groups. Experience has shown that almost every child-caring home can adopt this method of caring for its children without assuming an intolerable burden. Very often rearrangement of rooms with a slight decrease in the population and a few extensions is sufficient to provide the facilities needed.*

THE SEMICOTTAGE AND SEMICONGREGATE TYPE

22. The terms "semicottage" and "semicongregate" are applied to many variations of the cottage and congregate plant.

Probably the most important variation in which features of both the cottage and congregate type of institution are embodied is that

* A Program for Catholic Child-Caring Homes (report of the committee on standards, Sisters' Conference, National Conference of Catholic Charities, 1923, Proceedings), pp. 9-10. Obtainable from the Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.

usually found in large institutions when the population is divided into groups of 20 to 30 children, each group being housed in a separate building which may or may not contain all housekeeping provisions. This method is an improvement over the congregate institution, but it is not so desirable an arrangement as that obtained when small groups of children are cared for in a cottage.

Some institutions have the large residence including dining rooms but have a central kitchen. Others have both the kitchen and the dining room central.

THE PAVILION TYPE

23. This type consists of two or more buildings connected by corridors, each housing a group of 12 to 20 children.

The living arrangements may provide for separate kitchens and dining rooms, or these may be central. The pavilion type may be desirable for a small institution such as a receiving home, if it is properly arranged; but it is not well adapted for caring for a large number of children.

RECEIVING HOMES

24. The building for a receiving home usually resembles one of the cottages in a cottage institution, or it may be of the semicongregate type.

The size of the building will depend upon local conditions, and its equipment will be similar to that of the types of institutions described in the foregoing pages. Since a receiving home is designed to give very temporary care, often pending family placement, it should have the best features that characterize the other types of institution. The children should be made to benefit as much as possible during their brief stay. A receiving home should have—

- (a) Ample facilities for reception and isolation.
- (b) Small dormitories and some single bedrooms which permit segregation of the children who may be cared for at any one time, as boys and girls, or older and young children, and children who because of possible moral or physical condition might contaminate others.
- (c) Enough bath and toilet rooms, and good sanitary conditions in general.
- (d) A cheerful and homelike effect in the rooms throughout the entire house.
- (e) An arrangement of the supervisors' rooms permitting close supervision of the children.
- (f) A supply of books, toys, games, and handicraft equipment which will interest the children quickly and keep them interested.

AUXILIARY BUILDINGS AND ROOMS

25. An administration building of the cottage type is preferable to the formerly much used monumental type of central administration building.

Office rooms should include at least a private office for the superintendent and a general office in which are found the necessary desks,

files, and typewriters. A reception room should be near the general offices. In the cottage institution some of the central storerooms may be located in the administration building.

26. An assembly room should be provided in the large institutions, also suitable rooms for religious services if the children do not attend church outside.

This may be a regular auditorium or a large room with a movable stage in which the children can gather for parties, theatricals, and other entertainments, and should be sufficiently large to seat all the children.

Provision should be made for a proper place for religious services, preferably separate from the assembly hall.

27. Convenient and attractive living quarters should be furnished for the staff if people of the desired intelligence and culture are to be obtained to care for the children (see p. 12).

The superintendent's home or apartment should be large enough for comfortable living. A reasonable proportion of space and expense must be devoted to living quarters for the staff. Work with children is tiring, and the people who do this work deserve comfortable accommodations. Each supervisor should have a living room and bedroom (with private bath) adjacent to the dormitories, so that night supervision may be maintained. Quarters should be provided for relief matrons as well as for the regular supervisors, and some provision should also be made for guests.

When the institution is so located that the teaching staff, general houseworker, or other employees can come in by the day, rooms which can be used in an emergency will suffice. If all the workers must live in the institution, each appropriate group of them needs comfortable single bedrooms, with a bathroom and living room in common.

28. Isolation rooms should be in a separate cottage or entirely isolated from the rest of the house.

The isolation cottage should be some distance from other cottages. Every device is needed to keep the children comfortable and happy during the period of isolation. Single rooms and rooms accommodating three children in the isolation or reception cottage will permit such segregating as may be desirable. If both boys and girls are received by the institution, suitable plans should be developed for their supervision and care while in the isolation cottage.

The nurses or matrons in charge of the isolation cottage should have rooms similar to those for the supervisors in other cottages.

The treatment room or dispensary (see p. 48) should not be attached to the isolation department.

29. Rooms for the sick should be similarly isolated. Whether one or more rooms which can be isolated from the others are used or a separate building provided will depend upon the type of building adopted and the number of children to be cared for by the institution.

When a separate building is used for infirmary purposes it may be one story high and of inexpensive construction. The amount of space and of equipment desirable for an infirmary, also for laboratory, dispensary, and treatment room (see pp. 25, 48-49), will depend upon the outside hospital service available.

30. The central laundry should be well ventilated and should have modern machinery. It should be in a separate one-story building if possible but may be combined with the heating plant.

In case a separate building can not be provided there should be rooms placed so that the steam and odor will not reach other parts of the house and the ironing room should be separate from the wash room. Adult employees should do the work in the general laundry. It is likely to be too heavy for children and has little vocational interest or value. Moreover, many of the operations required in a steam laundry are forbidden to children under most State factory laws.

Adequate labor-saving machinery makes for economy and should be supplied whether the work is done by paid employees or by the larger children in the institution.

31. Whether a tool house and garage or still other auxiliary buildings are needed will depend upon the size of the institution and its requirements.

FURNISHINGS AND EQUIPMENT

32. The rooms in an institution should not differ greatly from similar rooms in a comfortable private residence. A homelike effect must be sought.⁵

The choice of colors for walls should be made carefully. Cheerful colors rarely cost any more than depressing ones, and the atmosphere of a room depends largely upon the background furnished by its walls. Pretty window draperies should be used. Materials of good quality are cheaper in the end than those which cost little at the start but need to be replaced soon.

33. With a little study and forethought, the living room may be made an attractive room that will especially appeal to the children.

There should be comfortable straight chairs and rocking chairs, small tables, a piano, and a phonograph, if possible, and a radio set. Built-in seats are a pleasing addition. There should be some good pictures of subjects which interest children. Pictures and mirrors should be hung rather low on the walls. A fireplace (with screen always in place when the fire is burning) is desirable.

34. Durability and suitability must be considered in the selection of furniture.⁶

Furniture should be of simple lines and strong construction. Steel furniture may well be considered because of its strength and its durable finish. In general a paint finish should be avoided except in the form of baked enamel. Well-constructed furniture does not break or wear out so quickly as cheap pieces; therefore it is more economical in the long run. In addition to tables and chairs of ordinary sizes for the larger children, there should be some small chairs and low tables for the small children. Bookcases and cupboards to which the children have free access should be low enough to permit all the shelves to be reached easily.

⁵ Sanders, Mrs. Charles Bradley: *How to Furnish the Small Home; a handbook for furnishing and decorating the inexpensive house.* Better Homes in America, Washington, D. C., 1924.

⁶ Southard, Lydia: *Institutional Household Administration*, pp. 70-99. J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1923.

35. The library and study room should be so arranged that the children may study comfortably and quietly, in good light.

There should be low shelves for the books which the children may have at will and closed cases for books to be used only with permission. A number of comfortable chairs of different sizes should be provided, and enough tables to obviate any need of crowding. The walls, window draperies, and pictures should receive as much consideration as those of the living room.

36. The playroom should have accommodation for both quiet and active games (see pp. 95, 100).

There should be sufficient closet or cupboard room for games and toys, individual lockers for the children's private possessions, and enough tables and chairs of different sizes. A piano or phonograph is a desirable addition. Proper protection for lighting fixtures and windows will permit a greater latitude in the kinds of play allowed.

37. The dining room should have small tables (each seating six or eight children). It should be attractive and convenient.

The chairs should be accommodated to the sizes of the children so that each child may be comfortable and have opportunity to eat properly. Linen should be white.⁷ Doilies, mats, or runners may be used on polished or painted tables. There should be individual holders for napkins. The dishes should be of reasonably light porcelain or earthenware, and the glassware in keeping with it. Knives, forks, and spoons should be of plated silver or a metal resembling it.

For list of references on buildings see Chapter XV, page 123.

⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 113-114.

Chapter V.—ADMISSIONS¹

POLICIES GOVERNING ADMISSIONS

1. The admission policy should be determined by three main factors: The needs of the group to be served, the resources of the community, and the type of work to be undertaken.

The needs of the group which the institution is endeavoring to serve should be considered carefully. Note should be taken of all the resources in the community which are available for meeting some of the needs. Then the type of work which the institution, by virtue of its plant, staff, and financial support, is best qualified to undertake can be chosen most intelligently.

In communities where the social work is well organized an institution may find it advisable to specialize in a certain type of care or in work for a certain group. In other places it may be necessary to extend the activities of the institution to include work ordinarily performed by other social agencies. Policies must of necessity differ since needs vary, the resources of communities differ, and the plant, staff, and financial backing of institutions are not alike.

Defining the intake policy should cover the following points:

- (a) Designation of the person or group responsible for passing upon admissions.
- (b) Type of investigation required.
- (c) Person or agency responsible for investigation.
- (d) Restrictions upon admissions.
- (e) Form of transfer of custody or control required.
- (f) Length of time during which the children received will remain in the institution.

2. The admission policy should be reconsidered at intervals and revised when it appears that the institution can thus render a more valuable service.

The admission policy should be definite, but it must not be allowed to crystallize. Periodic revision is desirable in order that account may be taken of changing conditions.

3. Admission should be limited to the children for whom the institution is qualified by staff and equipment to give adequate care.

Diverse activities for varied groups are successfully conducted by some institutions, but the average institution must confine itself to providing for the needs of a rather limited group. Only those children should be received whose needs can be met by the institution, and they should be kept only so long as they benefit more from the care given in that institution than from other available care. Delin-

¹ See Ch. XIII.—Discharge and Aftercare. Activities of investigation and supervision incident to admission and discharge are usually carried on by the same worker or staff of workers, and the two chapters should be considered together from the point of view of social work by the institution.

quent children and those having any decided mental defect should not be accepted for care with dependent children (see p. 63).

4. *Responsibility for admissions should be definitely fixed. The superintendent, acting alone or in conjunction with a case committee of the board, should control all admissions.*

The superintendent should be empowered to make final decision on all emergency cases. The case committee should meet at least weekly when there are any applications to consider.

5. *Every child should be regarded as a member of a family group whose integrity is of importance both to the child and to society.*

No child should be regarded as an isolated unit. Facts relating to the social, economic, physical, and mental condition of the child's family as well as of the child himself all should be procured. When sufficient data have been obtained a decision should be reached on the following questions:

(a) Is there any possible way of caring for the child properly in his own home?

(b) What resources does the community offer for care in a foster home?

(c) Is the institution equipped to give the kind of care which this child needs?

(d) Does institutional care meet the needs of this child better than any other kind of care which can be provided for him?

IMPORTANCE OF INVESTIGATION BY TRAINED WORKERS

6. *A thorough investigation of applications for admission is essential to any well-conducted institution. The information needed as a basis for intelligent admission is the same for a small institution as for a large one.*

An institution should feel itself obligated, no matter what its size, to find out the facts about the children it admits. Careful investigation should be made for every child admitted, regardless of the probable length of his stay.

7. *Some methods of accomplishing thorough investigation are as follows (see also Ch. XIV, especially pp. 109, 111, 114):*

(a) The institution may employ one or more trained social workers to make the investigations for admission. It is important that these people do their work in close cooperation with other social agencies in the community.

(b) Two or more small institutions may cooperate in procuring the services of a competent person. Such combinations are advisable only when the number of applications is so limited that one person can handle the joint work in an adequate manner.

(c) A private agency, such as a children's aid society or a family agency, may make investigations for an institution.

(d) A central admission agency or bureau may be maintained by a group of institutions. The group may be united by a common religious faith, or all may receive support from a common fund, or there may be a loose organization of voluntary members. Although the methods of operation in such agencies differ, time is generally saved by them for both relatives and institutional workers, duplication of work is avoided, better understanding of the children who

need help is acquired, and a more satisfactory adjustment is likely to be made.

These agencies find it desirable to work very closely with the family case-work agency, for the child's problem must be considered as a family problem and the plans made for him should include his family. When the family agency is enlisted the possibilities of adjustments in the child's own home are greater.

8. Trained social workers are needed for investigations, the number to be employed depending upon the size of the institution.

The superintendent should not be expected to make the investigations. The experience and training which qualify a person for the work of superintending an institution are quite different from those required for a social case worker. Moreover, the superintendent has enough to do managing the institution, and he could not devote time to investigation without neglecting his other duties.

Volunteer workers seldom have the experience necessary to make adequate investigations or the time to devote to it. This work demands the best type of experienced social worker, just as a physician of recognized standing should be called upon for a diagnosis of the child's physical condition.

9. Persons who are in charge of admissions should be informed as to the help which the State is prepared to give and should familiarize themselves with all types of social work being done in the community and with the assistance available from the various agencies.

Through the preliminary investigation the type of care required is determined, and constructive plans can then be made. Conditions may point to the desirability of hospital care or the need of training in a special school or in a State institution rather than in a private one. Sometimes care must be provided for a child who if placed in the institution would be detrimental to the other children (see p. 63). A carefully selected boarding home may meet such a child's need. Every child has a right to the kind of care best suited to his needs.

10. No child should be considered for admission until something is known of his relatives' ability and willingness to care for him.

Personal visits should be made to relatives who live fairly near. Contact with relatives living at a distance should be made by requesting agencies there to make visits. The cooperation of relatives should be sought at the start, not after the child has been in the institution for months. Relatives can be very helpful in giving facts concerning family history and an insight into the character of different members of the family, and also by active cooperation in carrying out a plan for the child's future.

11. A determined effort should be made to adjust the child with his own family satisfactorily. Poverty alone is not a sufficient reason for removal.

Financial aid may be the chief thing required to keep the family intact. Aid from public funds for dependent children or assistance from a family case-work agency may solve the family problem. In communities where such funds are not available some institutions are maintaining children in their own homes with institution funds.

An investigation frequently discloses the fact that no real reason exists for the removal of children from their own homes. Institu-

tional care may be the line of least resistance, but when it is denied many families are capable of making their own adjustments.

A mother with one child sometimes attempts to place the child in an institution so that she may work. Assistance may be given by finding for such a mother a suitable place to live where the child may be well cared for while she works. Such help is especially needed by the widow and deserted woman and by the unmarried mother who with some help can maintain herself and her child. In many cases this may be much better than providing institutional care for the child.

Children of widowers require very careful consideration. If they are accepted for care in the institution, as close a relationship should be maintained between the father and children as is possible and advisable under existing conditions. The father should be required to pay for their care according to his ability, and every effort should be made to foster in him a feeling of responsibility for his children.

Children whose parents are separated should be accepted only after careful investigation of conditions. Easy disposition of these children is not in the best interests of the family or of society.

12. If applicants for admission are not eligible in accordance with the policies of the institution, the institution should be able to refer them to other agencies or to help them in some way to obtain the kind of assistance needed.

13. A social investigation should be made before admission except when emergency care must be given and when the investigation must in consequence follow immediately upon the reception of the child.

The first purpose of an investigation is to determine whether the child should be received by the institution. The importance to the child, to the family, and to the institution of admitting only those children who are in real need of care has not been sufficiently appreciated by many organizations which are doing good work in other respects. The information obtained in the earlier investigation (see p. 38) should be preserved and used as the basis for the later and more thorough study.

14. A social investigation should include visits to the child's home and interviews with relatives and other sources of information concerning the character of the home and the needs of the child.

A careful questioning of the immediate family and relatives is necessary; and many statements—such as those concerning wages, property, and cash holdings—must be verified. The following sources may be of help in learning the facts which make it possible to understand the background of the family and to discover present needs: The confidential exchange and social agencies which have known the case; near and distant relatives; employers; members of fraternal orders; the minister; the physician; and teachers. The information which the teacher and the school authorities can give is especially important.

15. The facts collected must be considered carefully and a plan made for the child and his family as soon as the child has been admitted.

Care in the institution may be a part of the plan, but the immediate need for care should not be allowed to obscure the larger need for adjustment in a family home—the child's own when possible,

otherwise a foster home. At the time of admission of the child to the institution a plan should be made for his early adjustment into his own home if this is possible. If there is no suitable home a plan should be made, based on a careful study of the child as an individual and in relation to his family group. Individualization resulting from thorough study should be the basis of any plan. It should be a part of the social worker's duty to keep in touch with the child's family, keeping alive the contact between child and parent.

16. Every child admitted to the institution should have a thorough physical examination, without delay (see Ch. VI, Physical Care, p. 46).

The preliminary investigation deals with the child in his relation to his family and to the community. When the need for institutional care has been demonstrated, the child's individual possibilities and needs must be studied. Children admitted to institutions are much more likely to need especial attention in regard to both physical and mental needs than are the children living in normal homes (see p. 44).

17. Information should be procured which will tell something of the child's mental and moral development and his general behavior (see p. 69).

The best sources for this information are: The child himself; members of the child's immediate family and other relatives; teachers and school records; and mental examination by a skilled psychologist (see p. 65). For some cases a study of the child's personality and behavior by a psychiatrist specializing in work with children is desirable (see p. 65).

18. There are some children who should not be received in institutions for dependent children, either for their own good or for that of the other children.

(a) Some children, chiefly among those over 12 years of age, have become so firmly established in delinquency and are at the same time so dominating with younger children that they should not be admitted to institutions for the dependent. It should be left to the psychologist and the physician of the institution staff to decide, however, whether a given child is a real menace to the others, and therefore to be excluded, or whether his delinquent tendencies can be corrected by wise treatment without danger that the other children may be subjected to corrupting influences (see Ch. VIII, Mental Health, p. 65).

(b) Children very much below the general average of the community are not able to adapt themselves to conditions set for the average. They suffer from a sense of inferiority and are a handicap to the other children. They should be placed in institutions for the defective or in individual family homes.

(c) Children who are quite normal but who have the type of personality that does not adapt itself easily to group life suffer in spirit when placed in a group and they react badly. If it proves impossible to make a child happy in an institution and he continues resentful and uncooperative in spite of an earnest effort to understand his troubles and to help him, the psychiatrist or psychologist should be consulted as to the provision that should be made for him (see p. 63).

COURT COMMITMENTS AND VOLUNTARY SURRENDERS

19. *Court commitments are always desirable when permanent custody is assumed and when children are removed from their own homes, either temporarily or permanently, because of improper guardianship, neglect, or cruelty.*

When a permanent commitment is made or surrender is given legal custody of the child is assumed during the period of minority. A temporary commitment gives control for the period specified or until such time as the committing court changes the court order.

20. *Transfer of legal custody should be made only through court action.*

The permanent transfer of legal custody is a serious matter. Hasty and ill-considered action should not be allowed. By court procedure the rights of both the parents and the institution can be safeguarded more readily. Parents should not be permitted to release children for adoption without court action.

Surrenders by parent to institutions in States which do not have laws covering the transfer of legal custody of children² should be made subject to the condition that the institution promises to return the child to the parent when thorough investigation by the institution shows that the parent is able and fit to care for the child satisfactorily. This puts the burden of proof on the parents, but also places on the institution the responsibility for investigation.

When a child is placed in an institution because he is improperly cared for in his own home it should be possible to keep him under jurisdiction until the unfavorable conditions are remedied. This can be done with certainty only when the court orders the child committed to the institution, thus necessitating an order from the court to remove him. This need not mean that the child must be kept in the institution; he may be placed in a family home, though remaining under the jurisdiction of the institution.

21. *When careful investigation has been made and follow-up work done the cases (other than those of improper guardianship and neglect) which appear to require temporary care may be accepted without recourse to the courts.*

Very careful investigations are needed in all cases, whether the children need only temporary care or whether permanent custody is required. Ill-considered and hasty action in accepting children for temporary care frequently separates families unnecessarily for protracted periods and sometimes breaks up the family. It is advisable to make careful investigations for every child admitted, regardless of the probable length of his stay.

22. *In case children have been received for temporary care only, and after they have been admitted the necessity for a permanent transfer of custody arises, the court should be asked to make the order.*

THE FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITY OF RELATIVES

23. *If children who are placed in institutions have relatives who are able to pay in full or in part for the children's care, these relatives should be compelled to pay.*

² Adoption Laws in the United States, by Emelyn Foster Peck. U. S. Children's Bureau Publication No. 148. Washington, 1925.

When there are relatives who can pay for the children in the institution, they should be held responsible for their support, according to their ability to pay. In order to gauge their ability to pay a study of the income and necessary expenses of the family should be made a part of the investigation and an order to support made to fit each case. When a temporary commitment is made by the court, an order for support should be made by the court.

24. If the child is received direct from the family, a contract to support should be signed by the person responsible.

An order or agreement to support should be enforced, like any other order or agreement. Relatives should not be allowed to go for months without paying. If conditions are such that the money can not be paid without causing hardship, the order or agreement should be modified to fit new conditions.

Many children must be kept without any financial assistance from relatives. When a careful study has shown that there are no relatives who can pay, even in part, for the support of the child in the institution, then the responsibility for the child must be assumed by public or private charity.

For list of references on admissions see Chapter XV, page 123.

Chapter VI.—PHYSICAL CARE¹

SAFEGUARDING HEALTH

1. The medical work in an institution for children should be organized from the standpoint of maintaining health.

Everything possible must be done to prevent illness and to build up strong, healthy bodies able to resist disease rather than to provide elaborately for treatment of the disease after it has been contracted. Most of the children who are accepted for care are received from dependent or semidependent families. For this reason they have a larger percentage of physical defects (15 to 20 per cent greater in some instances) than are to be found among similar groups of children who come from well-to-do homes. Hence they are in especial need of preventive work.

This fact places upon the trustees and staff of an institution an obligation to compensate for the earlier years of neglect which have left the child malnourished, susceptible to infection, and handicapped by physical defects and behavior problems. Their obligation can be met only by—

(a) Thorough physical and mental examinations preliminary to the child's admission.

(b) Carrying out of the recommendations based upon examinations made (including all corrective work the need of which is reported to be immediate).

(c) An organized régime for the physical and mental life of each child calculated to maintain health after any gross effects of past neglect have been corrected.

The medical and nursing staff.

2. The staff for health service depends upon the size of the institution. Usually it should include a physician, nurse, and dentist; consultation and clinic or private-office service should be had when needed.

(a) A supervising physician, preferably one trained in the diseases of children, should be employed regularly. He may be either a full-time resident physician or a part-time visiting physician, but in any case he should be a regular member of the staff, responsible to the superintendent and submitting regular reports. This will relate the health work to the supervisory and administrative work of the institution. In matters of health the physician's authority should be superior to that of the superintendent, who otherwise might not carry out the spirit or letter of the instructions. Many institutions are able to secure volunteer medical service but can not

¹ It is the consensus of opinion that institutional care for babies should be avoided, care in individual boarding homes being preferable. Since some babies are being cared for in institutions at the present time, however, this chapter has been prepared to include standards of care for infants as well as for older children.

pay a supervisory physician. It should be recognized that the volunteer service is not a satisfactory substitute for paid service and is used only until the institution can meet this necessary item in its budget.

(b) A trained registered nurse or a practical nurse should be in residence. A visiting nurse may serve, the nurse or her organization being compensated for her service, but few institutions are so small that they do not need the full-time services of a nurse.

(c) A dentist on full-time service should be in residence or give part-time visiting service; or service may be given in the dentist's office and compensated.

(d) Consultation or clinic or private-office services of oculist, and nose, throat, and ear specialist must be sought whenever needed and should be compensated if possible.

(e) A psychologist should be in residence or should visit for mental measurements and consultation on behavior problems.^{1a}

(f) The services of an orthopedic surgeon should be available. This is necessary for the examination of certain children and for the supervision of posture work for the whole group of children.

3. The health of the staff and employees should be under the supervision of the medical staff of the institution.

The members of the staff and the employees should be examined to insure the absence of tuberculosis and venereal disease (see p. 14).

The isolation period.

4. If the children have no outside contacts, such as attendance at public school, social functions, and public theaters, an isolation period of at least three or four days following admission is desirable.

There is a difference of opinion as to the length of isolation necessary. Some physicians hold that a two weeks' period is required, since this is the minimum time for quarantining against infectious diseases. If the period is shorter than two weeks, certain diseases will be avoided, but others will not be.

When life in the institution permits outside contacts a period of isolation is useless so far as the common contagious diseases are concerned. However, if such an isolation period is adopted it should be absolute during both waking and sleeping hours for each child in the receiving home or isolation ward, since each new admission is a potential source of infection for all children. This period of quarantine may be used for a careful study of each child's physical and mental state and behavior and the administration of such treatment as may be prescribed by the physician—as vaccination, toxinantitoxin, or treatment for pediculosis or for scabies. Training can also be started for the correction of any bad habits.

The loneliness suffered by children in isolation must be guarded against as far as possible.

In actual practice the isolation period is very likely to become obsolete since most progressive institutions tend to increase outside contacts for all their children, and a careful preadmission history of exposure with close observation of the preliminary symptoms and physical signs of contagious disease will serve to reduce to a minimum

^{1a} Some State departments provide such service, or it may be secured by cooperative agreement with some private organization.

the dangers of an epidemic. But in institutions for infants or in institutions where young children are housed separately from older children, isolation should be made the regular practice.

Physical examination.

5. A thorough physical examination of each child should be made by a competent physician before the child is admitted or immediately thereafter. Isolation should continue until the examination.

Examination by a physician who is a member of the staff is preferable. The following items should be considered and the findings made a matter of record:²

Age, height, weight.	Teeth :
General appearance:	Clean.
Facial expression.	Number.
Color of skin and mucous membrane.	Carious.
Body temperature.	Abscessed.
State of nutrition.	Filled.
Muscular development.	Out.
Subcutaneous fat.	Occlusion.
Joints.	Tongue tie.
Skeletal development:	Palate defect (specify).
Type : Thin, intermediate, stocky.	Gums :
Posture.	Bleeding.
Spine : Lordosis, scoliosis, kyphosis.	Inflammation.
Evidence of rickets.	Heart :
In head, chest, extremities.	Specify details if abnormal.
Skin :	Lungs :
Dry.	Specify details if abnormal.
Rash (describe).	Abdomen :
Scalp.	Muscles.
Lymph nodes:	Liver enlarged.
Enlarged.	Spleen enlarged.
Cervical, epitrochlear, axillary, inguinal.	Umbilicus infected.
Eyes:	Hernia :
Strabismus.	Umbilical.
Other defects.	Inguinal.
Vision.	Femoral.
Ears:	Genitals :
Discharge.	Testes descended.
Hearing.	Phimosis.
Drums.	Circumcised.
Nose:	Hydrocele.
Obstruction.	Vaginal discharge.
Discharge (describe).	Nervous system :
Adenoids.	Chvostek's sign.
Turbinates enlarged.	Knee jerks.
Septum deviated.	Spasticity.
Throat:	Paralyses (describe).
Tonsils enlarged.	Mentality :
Tonsils diseased.	Normal.
	Retarded.

6. Certain laboratory examinations should be made as a matter of routine. Additional examinations should be made when recommended by the physician.

² Standards for Physicians Conducting Conferences in Child-Health Centers. U. S. Children's Bureau Publication No. 154. Washington, 1926. The physical-examination record forms shown in this publication may be obtained in quantities from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. For children over 6 years of age, see the Baldwin-Wood weight-height-age tables (American Child Health Association, New York). Nearly all State departments of public health or welfare furnish the blanks that institutions need for examinations.

(a) Wassermann test, tuberculin test, Schick test, vaginal smear, urine examination, and throat culture should be made for every child on admission.

(b) All children not already vaccinated against smallpox should be vaccinated on admission, and all children having positive Schick tests should be given toxin-antitoxin.

(c) Other examinations, such as blood, sputum, stool, and X ray, should be made as indicated.

(d) Certain tests, such as the tuberculin, urine, and blood test, should be repeated as indicated from time to time.

(e) Prophylaxis against typhoid fever, scarlet fever, and measles should be undertaken in case of exposure of any children to these diseases. Satisfactory arrangements usually can be made with hospital clinics for examinations, when there is no staff physician, and also for laboratory tests.

7. Height and weight should be recorded at regular intervals.

The weight of infants under 1 year of age and that of under-weight children of any age should be recorded weekly; that of children over 1 year should be recorded monthly; and that of children 6 years of age and over, once in three months.

8. All medical records should be kept in the institution (see Ch. XIV, p. 112).

Records must be kept for each infant or child. These should include the history of previous illnesses, accidents, and operations, all physical examinations, notes on the feeding or diet recommended by the physician, and notes on conditions observed by the nurse or nutrition worker. The notes made by the physician and nurse should be made on the same sheet, the order being chronological. Notes made by the nurse may be in red ink and those made by the physician in black ink so that they may be quickly differentiated. Medical and health-supervision records should be in the control of the institution physician. Definite medical-history blanks should be supplied having printed on them each item on which information is desired.³

9. A routine dental examination should be made every six months.

Having the teeth in good condition promotes general good health. Frequent examination will insure the immediate correction of defects that might otherwise pass unnoticed until they become aggravated. Regular cleaning by the dentist is also essential.

10. A routine health examination by the staff physician every six months is necessary if the children are to be kept in the best physical condition, and also routine eye, ear, nose, and throat examinations once a year by specialists.

In addition to the regular examinations and the calls made whenever any special need arises, the physician should visit the institution at regular intervals in accordance with the following minimum: He should see any babies in the institution once a week; the children under 6 years of age once in two weeks; and the children over 6 years of age once a month. Since the medical work of an institution for children should be essentially preventive, the physician must work from the standpoint of health and not of disease. This necessitates constant supervision.

³ See footnote 2, p. 112.

11. A report of the physical condition of the children should be made by the nurse or superintendent to the physician once each week.

Deviations from the normal on the part of any child should be made a matter of record on the child's continuous history sheet (see p. 112).

Correction of defects.

12. Special surgical, medical, and dental services should be obtained when necessary.

Cases of diseased tonsils, adenoids, and nasal obstructions require surgical treatment by a specialist. Infected tonsils must be treated or removed, and adenoids or nasal obstructions should be removed. If general hospital facilities are not available, it is possible to arrange for periodic clinics to be held at the institution as occasion requires.

An oculist should be called in consultation for all cases presenting symptoms of eye strain; and glasses should be furnished to children whose need of them has been determined.

Posture classes should be organized for children in need of corrective work in relation to posture. Such classes should be organized under the direction of an orthopedic surgeon and the exercises performed daily thereafter under the supervision of the staff nurse.*

Nutrition classes should be organized and systematic nutrition work planned unless such unusual facilities for the care of undernourished children are available that individual care may be given (see p. 51). Measures should also be taken to care for children who are abnormally overweight.

Decayed teeth must be treated and filled promptly, or they must be removed if the dentist so advises; and all other needed dental care must be given without delay.

The infirmary and dispensary.

13. A treatment room for the dressing of minor surgical cases and injuries is needed. This room may also serve as a dispensary.

Depending upon the physician in charge and the size of the institution, there may be in addition to the dispensary a room and equipment for minor operations, a laboratory for use in making urinary analyses and simple bacteriological smears, a sterilizer, and a dental chair.

The equipment needed will also depend upon the hospital facilities available in the neighborhood.

14. The infirmary should be equipped for the control of contagion (see p. 45).

When a regular hospital is available for the care of children suffering from eruptive diseases and fevers it should be used. Children suffering from colds and respiratory diseases, as well as other illnesses, should be cared for in the infirmary of the institution.

15. One bed in the infirmary to every 25 children in the institution is a minimum provision, and 100 square feet of floor space per bed, with good cross ventilation.

* Posture Clinics; organization and exercises, by Armin Klein, M. D. U. S. Children's Bureau Publication No. 164. Washington, 1926. A set of six charts on posture standards may be purchased from the Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. (See description obtainable from the U. S. Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.)

The number of infirmary beds is determined by the relation of the institution to outside hospitals. When no outside hospital facilities are available the institution will require more beds than the minimum provision.

If a ward is used cubicles should be provided to minimize the danger of cross infection. Muslin curtains or screens may be used, or beds may be arranged alternately head to foot. If funds permit, the partitions may be of glass in order to reduce the loneliness of the children and to facilitate nursing supervision.

HEALTH HABITS

Eating.

16. Meals should be served at regular hours. Eating between meals or shortly before a meal should be discouraged.

If children are in school a hot lunch should be provided at noon and the evening meal made the substantial meal of the day. Sufficient time should be allowed at each meal for the thorough mastication of food (25 to 30 minutes).

17. A start should be made in training the children in good habits just as soon as they enter the institution.

Children must be taught early to eat simple nourishing foods and not to refuse any variety of food served to them. Some bad food habits commonly found in children which need correction are eating between meals, refusal to eat certain foods such as cereals and green vegetables, the desire to eat only sweet or starchy foods, eating too fast and not chewing the food properly, washing down food with liquids, and not sitting down at a table for meals.

To teach children good food habits requires patience and much individual attention; but even children of normal weight may suffer in later years if they do not learn to eat properly.

Elimination.

18. An attempt should be made to secure a bowel movement at a fixed time, such as immediately after breakfast or supper.

Health depends to a great extent on the elimination of waste products. Calls to the toilet should be obeyed promptly. For that reason it is essential that an institution be equipped with sufficient toilets. Satisfactory elimination is prompted by eating fruits, green vegetables, and whole-grain cereals, and by drinking plenty of water.

19. The bladder should be emptied immediately on rising and before retiring, with at least one or two additional evacuations during the day.

Children's eliminative processes are more active than those of adults. This fact should be kept in mind by persons who undertake the children's training. Regular and fixed times for going to the toilet should be established.

Washing and bathing.

20. A daily bath is desirable; two warm baths (tub or shower) each week should be the minimum.

Cold plunges or showers may be taken in the morning, but they must be followed by a vigorous rubbing to stimulate the general circulation. Warm baths should be given at night at least twice a week even if cold baths are given daily. Cold baths are not intended to be

cleansing. Their temperature should be between 50° and 60°. Warm baths should have a temperature between 98° and 105°.

The hair should be washed not less often than every two weeks.

21. A daily routine should be established. The following items (in addition to the bath) are recommended:

- (a) Wash the hands and face on rising and before retiring.
- (b) Brush the teeth on rising and before retiring.
- (c) Wash the ears regularly (as before retiring).
- (d) Wash the hands and brush the hair before each meal.
- (e) Wash the hands after going to the toilet.
- (f) Clean the finger nails daily (they should be trimmed weekly).

Each child should be taught as soon as possible to perform these services for himself. There should be sufficiently close inspection to insure the carrying out of the routine. Personal cleanliness promotes self-respect and training the children in habits of cleanliness will result incidentally in economy in the laundering of towels.

22. Individual toilet articles are needed.

(a) The comb and hairbrush belonging to each child should be labeled and kept in a separate sanitary place so that they do not come in contact with articles belonging to other children. They should be kept clean by washing in borax water once a week.

(b) Toothbrushes should be labeled and should hang where air and light can reach them.

(c) Soap of good quality and tooth paste (or powder) should be provided for each child.

23. Individual towels and wash cloths should be provided.

(a) The wash cloth for each child should be hung so that it will not come in contact with articles belonging to other children. Wash cloths should be changed three times a week. They should be boiled and sunned weekly.

(b) Face towels should be changed at least three times a week. Each child's towel should be hung where it does not come in contact with other children's towels and where it will be well aired.

(c) Bath towels should be changed weekly. The hangers must be arranged to provide for airing and to prevent any child's towel from coming in contact with those of any other child. The ordinary bent-wire clothing hook, with a little adjustment, provides a hanger for the towel and a rack for the toothbrush.

Sleeping.

24. The habit of going to bed at a fixed hour and promptly going to sleep should be formed early.

Health, both mental and physical, depends upon properly regulated hours of work, recreation, and sleep. No hilarious play should be permitted immediately before the hour of going to bed, since the excitement is very likely to delay sleep.

25. Children under 6 years of age require 12 hours of sleep at night (7 p. m. to 7 a. m.) and a nap of at least an hour during the day. Children between 6 and 14 years of age require at least 10 hours of sleep at night (8 or 9 p. m. to 7 a. m.).

Many children over 6 years of age need a daytime nap or at least a period of rest during the day as much as the younger children

need it. This is especially true of the nervous, high-strung, or undernourished child (see p. 53).

EXPOSURE TO SUNLIGHT

26. All children should be exposed to direct sunlight during a part of every sunny day in both winter and summer.

The baby or young child who has been kept out of doors and tanned by the sun is strikingly healthy and vigorous in contrast to the pale, flabby child who has been kept indoors. Sunlight has undeniably beneficial effects.⁵ Children under 2 years of age should have their sun baths on southwest porches or at least in front of a sunny open window even in the wintertime; and older children may play in sunny yards. The rays of the sun must reach the child's skin directly. Window glass, as well as clothing, obstructs the passing of the ultra-violet rays that have been found to exert the preventive and healing influence especially observed in the case of rickets.

THE NUTRITION PROGRAM

27. The purpose of a nutrition program is to maintain the normal nutrition of all the children in the institution⁶ by giving especial attention to the nutritional needs of those who are undernourished.

The services of an expert nutrition worker and of a physician experienced in this field should be obtained if possible when the nutrition program is to be initiated. Institutions fortunate enough to be situated in cities having nutrition clinics usually can receive service from them. If the permanent services of a nutrition worker can not be afforded and no clinic is accessible, an expert should be employed for a time to cooperate with the staff physician; and the latter should familiarize himself with this type of work so that he can continue it with the help of the staff nurse and the cottage mothers.

28. Every institution should develop a system whereby the children are examined regularly to ascertain their nutritional state, and those found to be undernourished are selected for special care.

The value of a nutrition program in institutions has been demonstrated repeatedly by improvement in the health of undernourished children. The superintendent of an institution which has conducted a nutrition program for a number of years says:⁷

If it were merely a matter of pounds it might not be worth the effort it costs to put on weight, but so many ills disappear as the normal weight is reached that we can not doubt the benefit to the children. They are less irritable, better behaved, happier, and more alert—in short, more nearly normal in every way.

⁵ There has been definite proof of the power of sunlight in the prevention and control of rickets, one of the commonest diseases of infancy. See Sunlight for Babies (U. S. Children's Bureau Folder No. 5, Washington, 1926) and A Demonstration of the Community Control of Rickets, by Martha M. Eliot, M. D., (reprinted by the U. S. Children's Bureau from the Proceedings of the Third Annual Conference of State Directors in Charge of the Local Administration of the Maternity and Infancy Act, 1926).

⁶ That children's physical condition has a direct effect upon their conduct has been observed frequently. A study of 300 "problem children" made in 1924 showed that 108 of these children (36 per cent) were poorly nourished. See "Physical findings in problem children," by William E. Carter, M. D., in Mental Hygiene [New York], Vol. X, No. 1 (January, 1926), p. 76.

⁷ Annual Report, 1922, Cleveland Protestant Orphan Asylum, p. 6. Cleveland, Ohio, 1922.

29. The way to select the children in need of special attention is to compare their heights, weights, and ages with figures showing the height, weight, and age of the average child, and to give to each child a careful physical examination (see p. 46).

The state of a child's nutrition can be determined only by an examination of the child stripped and by comparison of the child's height and weight with the average standards set forth on height-weight-age tables. Use of these tables alone, without observation of the amount of subcutaneous fat, the tone of the tissues and muscles, and the general appearance of the child, may give false impressions of the child's nutrition. Height-weight-age tables give standards for average boys and girls.⁸ Having been based on average children, the tables are somewhat low for normal children. Any child falling 10 per cent below the average here given should probably be considered undernourished. Any child 20 per cent above the average may be too fat. Examination of children without their clothes will bring additional evidence to bear on the individual cases.

30. Nutrition is promoted by having the body free from physical defects and by following good health habits.

The physical-growth examination discloses with remarkable regularity the following defects in underweight children: Fatigue posture, including round shoulders, ptosis, protruding abdomen, and flat feet; spinal curvature (in 20 per cent of the cases), pallor, lines under eyes, and anxious expression; mouth breathing, enlarged anterior cervical glands, and other signs of nasopharyngeal obstruction (60 per cent of the cases); flabby muscles (tested by feeling the upper arm), and mental apathy or overstimulation.⁹

These defects are of two types. Nasopharyngeal obstruction, diseased condition of the tonsils, and decay in teeth are defects that may interfere with improvement in a child's nutrition even when his health habits are good. Correction of such defects is therefore one of the first requirements of the nutrition program. Poor posture, pallor, and flabbiness of muscles are, strictly speaking, indications of a poor nutritional state rather than defects in themselves. They should therefore diminish and finally disappear as a result of efficient nutrition work and posture training.¹⁰

31. The first requirement of the undernourished child, after preliminary correction of the more obvious type of physical defects, is the right kind of food in sufficient amounts.

The kind of food needed by each child and the amount he should eat will be prescribed by the nutrition expert. The amount varies with the age of the child. All children require a greater amount of food and water in proportion to their size than is necessary for adults; and undernourished children need extra quantities until they have attained normal growth.

An extra meal consisting of a glass of milk and one or two graham or oatmeal crackers will be needed in the middle of the morning and the middle of the afternoon in addition to the regular meals. If this seems to diminish the child's appetite for the regular meals an orange may be substituted for the milk; it contains valuable food elements

⁸ See Average Heights and Weights of Children under 6 Years of Age (U. S. Children's Bureau Publication No. 84, Washington, 1921) and Weight-Height-Age Tables for Boys and Girls (American Child Health Association, New York, 1923).

⁹ Emerson, William R. P.: "Nutrition and growth in children." Boston Medical and Surgical Journal, vol. 188, No. 1 (January, 1923), pp. 8-10.

¹⁰ See footnote 4, p. 48.

and may stimulate the appetite rather than reduce it. The extra lunch in the afternoon should be given as soon as the child returns from the school or just before the afternoon nap. (Some schools provide lunches of this character for all the children or for those who have been determined to be undernourished.)

32. Undernourished children need midmorning and midafternoon rest periods in addition to the full amount of sleep at night (see p. 50).

Since undernourished children require more sleep and repose than the normal child, they should have naps or at least rest periods in the middle of both morning and afternoon. If they are kept in school where no rest period in the morning is feasible they should go to bed immediately after they return from school in the afternoon, having had the midafternoon lunch as promptly as possible. To be most effective the rest periods should be supervised; it must be certain the child is really resting even if he has not fallen asleep. Couches or cots on a sunny porch or blankets on the lawn should be used in summer; and in winter the porches or at least rooms permitting wide opening of the windows should be used.

33. Strenuous play and work, both mental and physical, must be restricted for underweight children and quiet occupations substituted.

Although the normal child with plenty of reserve energy thrives under strenuous play adapted to his age, nutrition programs conducted in large institutions have demonstrated that the underweight child has not the vigor necessary for such physical exercise. Replacing vigorous exercise or work by quiet outdoor occupations may help an undernourished child to begin to gain weight. But he needs fresh air and sunlight even more than the normal child, and he should not be kept indoors because of inability to join in the strenuous games of the other children. Too great mental activity may likewise interfere with the ability of a child to gain weight. Extra tasks such as music lessons and practice, elocution lessons, or religious studies may be too exacting for undernourished children, some of whom can not stand even the strain of the full school session.

34. Nutrition classes are helpful in winning the interest and cooperation of each child in the whole nutrition program.

Health habits and especially the eating of adequate foods often may be taught best in nutrition classes. There should not be more than 20 children in a class. This permits giving enough individual attention to insure the establishment of correct habits and the detection and discouragement of undesirable ones. The interest of the group may be enlisted by various methods and a wholesome spirit of competition developed. Every child in the class should be weighed weekly to ascertain the gain made. The child's own effort is increased when he can see recorded on charts or elsewhere the progress he is making.¹¹ Devices for recording and recognizing improvement in habits and in health, such as individual charts plainly displayed, also praise judiciously given, will serve to stimulate interest and effort and thus to aid in accomplishing the results desired.

¹¹ Charts for recording progress in nutrition can be obtained from the American Child Health Association, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York.

Any suggestion of command or of punishment must be avoided, as this would hinder the success of the work.

35. Cottage mothers should attend the nutrition classes. Their intelligent cooperation is essential.

Great care should be taken to explain to the cottage mothers the purpose of the program, the reason for undertaking it, the means by which the desired ends can be gained, and the importance of their part in its successful accomplishment. It is quite as important for the cottage mothers to attend the nutrition classes as for the children to go. The recommendations of the physician and nutrition worker must be carried out with sympathetic interest and an understanding of the child's deficiencies. The cottage mothers should be responsible in large part for carrying out the nutrition program and for maintaining the children's interest in it.

For list of references on physical care see Chapter XV, page 123.

Chapter VII.—FOOD AND CLOTHING

THE INSTITUTION DIETARY

1. The institution dietary should be planned by some one who understands food values in order that the right proportions as well as the right kinds of food may be served.

The well-being and future development of all children are vitally affected by the quality and quantity of their food. This fact has been learned from study of children in both institutions and private homes. Many persons think that if children do not seem hungry they have been given sufficient food to satisfy their needs. Indifference to food and lack of appetite are characteristic of the malnourished child. Eating inadequate food may give a feeling of satisfaction; therefore a child may be really hungry and his body suffering from lack of foods of the right kind while he seems satisfied. An adequate diet is one which contains the right kinds of food in sufficient quantities to insure good appetite and maximum growth and development.

Every person responsible for providing the food for children in institutions should have some understanding of the food needs of a growing child and should see that these needs are met as adequately as possible in the dietary. Skillful planning of menus is necessary in order to include the right amounts of desirable foods. A study of what the children actually eat must also be made. Even when adequate food is provided, a child may have an inadequate diet, because he may have a habit of rejecting certain foods. A few days' carefully recorded observation of the food habits of each child at table will give much valuable information which should be thoroughly studied by the person planning the menus. It is difficult to overcome dislikes of foods; and a sympathetic interest shown by new methods of preparing or of flavoring a disliked food will greatly assist the children in overcoming any dislikes which have become established.

2. Providing an adequate diet requires careful planning of menus based on the needs of the children, skillful and pleasing preparation of the food, and gradual education of the children so that they will really enjoy the right food.¹

Having the food prepared and served for small groups of children may be advantageous if the person responsible for providing food for each small unit has been trained to do such work. That the food be cooked in small quantities is not essential, however. Food cooked in large quantities should be equally palatable if the persons who prepare it are resourceful in planning and genuinely interested in good flavoring, and have a real understanding of their work.

¹ Child Management, by D. A. Thom, M. D., pp. 6-9. U. S. Children's Bureau Publication No. 143. Washington, 1925.

Help in planning a dietary for an institution and suggestions as to how to develop good food habits in the children may be obtained from nutrition clinics, when they are accessible; from State and Federal departments; from national organizations interested in nutrition problems; and from departments of home economics in colleges.²

3. The adequacy of a diet should be measured by the physical condition of the children.

The amount of food needed by growing boys and girls depends entirely upon their activity, their rate of growth, and their size. Each of these items should be recorded for every child no less frequently than every six months. The diet should be sufficiently liberal to maintain a high standard of physical development for each child. When any child's weight falls below the standard for his height and age this should be reported to the physician. Special provision should be made for extra food if this is advised by the examining physician.

THE FOODS NEEDED BY CHILDREN

4. Certain foods are essential for children, and they should be provided in the requisite quantities.

Within the last few years there has been much practical demonstration of the immense importance of several different kinds of food in maintaining adequate growth and development in children. Milk, eggs, fruits, vegetables, and whole-grain cereals are called essential foods because each of these serves a particular function in the diet, and none of them should be omitted.³

A limited amount of substitution is possible, but expert advice should be sought before the substitution is made with any frequency. Milk is so necessary for children that when it is impossible to include all the recommended foods in the desirable amounts in the dietary the children's diet should be safeguarded by using not less than 1 quart of whole milk per day for each child instead of the $1\frac{1}{2}$ pints mentioned in paragraph 5.

There are some differences in the food needs of children of different ages. The children under 6 years of age are especially in need of all the essential foods. They are less able to tolerate substitution than the older children are.

5. The minimum quantity of whole milk recommended for each child each day is a pint and a half, though a quart is desirable. If it has not come from tuberculin-tested cows it should have been pasteurized.

Cocoa made with milk may be substituted for milk two or three times a week. Some of the milk may be used in custards, puddings, and other cooked foods.

6. Eggs should be served three or four times a week or oftener.

Eggs are particularly valuable for children under 6 years of age. When because of cost the supply is limited they should be given to them more often than to the older boys and girls.

² Organizations that may be mentioned are the Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor; Bureau of Home Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture; Bureau of Education, U. S. Department of the Interior; American Red Cross, Washington, D. C.; American Child Health Association, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York.

³ A diet containing liberal amounts of the essential foods (milk, eggs, vegetables, and fruits) is a safeguard against tooth deterioration.

7. *Vegetables should be provided liberally. They must be cooked in a variety of ways and carefully flavored in order that the children may really enjoy these important foods.*

Some vegetable other than potatoes should be served at least once daily, preferably twice daily. Leafy vegetables (those from which the leaves and stalks are eaten rather than the fruits, roots, or tubers) are especially valuable. They should be served three or four times a week. Some uncooked vegetable (as in a salad) should be included if possible. Fresh vegetables should be given the preference. During the winter the dried and canned vegetables are a valuable supplement to those that can be stored. Potatoes should not be given in place of other vegetables, as they are primarily a starchy food; but they may be served daily.

8. *Fruits should be served at least once a day.*

Although dried and canned fruits are an important part of the institution dietary, it is desirable to use some uncooked fruit or vegetable several times a week. Raw tomatoes (as in salads) may take the place of fruit.

9. *At least part of the bread served should be whole wheat, graham, rye, or corn bread. Breakfast cereals should be chiefly the whole-grain ones.*

Such cereals as include the whole grain of wheat, corn, and oats are particularly valuable.

10. *Meats, fats, sugars, and starches are necessary foods. A certain amount of each must be given, but none of them should be overused.*

Meat served four times a week is adequate if fish, eggs, cheese, dried beans, or dried peas are substituted for it on other days so that the children may get the protein which they need. A good weekly plan for the main protein dish of the day would include meat four times, fish once, eggs and cheese once, and dried beans or peas once.

Fats in the diet are valuable and add greatly to its flavor. Butter is a fat which is an especially useful growth food. When every child is given 1½ pints of whole milk daily the children are probably receiving an adequate amount of butterfat; and margarin may be served with the bread if necessary. If part of the milk is skimmed, then an allowance of butter should always be given. Fats should not be used excessively in cooking foods; and fat-rich foods such as pastry are to be avoided.

Starchy and sweet foods are, together with fats, the main sources of energy in the diet; and active children need them. But such foods as bread, potatoes, rice, hominy, macaroni, and other cereals are often given in excess because of their cheapness and substituted for a proportion of the essential foods (meats, fats, green vegetables, and raw fruits). No menu should contain more than two starchy foods as main dishes. Sweet potatoes and yams may take the place of white potatoes, although they are not so nearly equivalent in starch content as cereals. Sweet dishes in the form of dried or fresh fruits, a prepared milk dessert, or a simple cake such as gingerbread or cookies add to the pleasure of the noon and evening meals and are at the same time nourishing foods. Some wholesome candy may be given (preferably at a time when it is not likely to diminish the appetite for the next meal).

MENUS

Planning the menus.*

11. The menus should be planned at least a week in advance, preferably several weeks; and certain general principles must be kept in mind.

(a) Menus should be arranged with the idea of including in each day's food plan adequate amounts of the right foods. It is essential to use the week as the unit in making out menus because certain foods (such as eggs) are not always used daily.

(b) Variety is so important an element in making food attractive that great care should be taken not to serve the same dishes on a certain day of the week. A file should be kept of all the daily menus served. Repetition can be avoided by a careful study of this file. It should be augmented constantly as new methods of preparing foods are adopted and changes made in flavorings, and as the food materials vary from season to season.

(c) The food must be properly distributed among the meals of the day. Supper or lunch must not be too light and dinner too heavy, nor the reverse. It is not desirable to concentrate in one meal the greater part of the required food. Children who have been active all day long need a fairly substantial supper even if dinner was served in the middle of the day.

(d) Soft and soupy foods should not be served in excessive quantities. Soups and thin porridges or cereals contain too little nutrient in proportion to the liquid content. Foods which are solid enough to require the use of knife and fork should predominate in each day's menu. Ease of preparation must not be the determining factor in selecting the dishes to be served. Attractive and wholesome meals providing all the elements needed for growth can be served as cheaply as inadequate, unattractive meals.

(e) Although skillful flavoring is an important element in the preparation of the food, very high seasoning should be avoided.

(f) No tea or coffee should be given to children. If the habit of drinking tea or coffee has been established before a child has entered the institution, this habit should be broken if possible.

Menus for children from 2 to 6 years of age.

12. In the following menus cocoa may be substituted for milk two or three times a week. The bread should be a day old. Cereals should be cooked and should be served hot; the uncooked cereals may be served occasionally for the older children. Plenty of water should be drunk between meals rather than at the meals.

BREAKFAST (7 TO 8 A. M.):

- Fruit (if none is served at dinner).
- Whole milk (1 to 2 cupfuls).
- Bread (2 or 3 slices) with butter.
- Cereal (3 to 4 tablespoonfuls).

DINNER (12 M. TO 1 P. M.):

- An egg (never fried) four or five days of the week. Meat or fish (boiled, broiled, or roasted) on the other days.
- Potato (plain boiled, mashed, baked; never fried).

* In regard to the food needs of undernourished children, see p. 52. All the menus in this section have been adapted from *Food for the Family* (New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor Publication No. 120 (revised). New York, 1922).

DINNER—Continued.

One other vegetable (mashed fine or in a purée) (1 to 3 tablespoonfuls or more) such as—

Spinach or other greens.	Carrots.
Lettuce.	Cauliflower.
String beans.	Squash.
Green peas.	Celery.
Asparagus.	Onions.
Tomatoes.	Turnips.
Cabbage.	Dried beans, peas, or lentils.

Bread (1 to 2 slices or more) with butter.

Whole milk (1 cupful).

Simple milk desserts or fruit (if none is served at breakfast), such as—

Juice of an orange.	Banana (fully ripe).
Prunes.	Peach or plum (fully ripe).
Apple (baked, in sauce, or raw).	Cooked pear.

MIDAFTERNOON LUNCH (3 P. M.) :

Crackers and milk, bread and butter, or bread and milk.

SUPPER (5 TO 6 P. M.) :

Cereal (3 to 4 tablespoonfuls).

Whole milk (1 to 2 cupfuls).

Bread and butter.

Vegetable or fruit (see lists suggested for dinner).

Menus for children over 6 years of age.

13. In the following menus cocoa may be substituted for milk two or three times a week. Prepared cereals are more expensive but may be served occasionally for a change when another hot food is served at the breakfast. Plenty of water should be drunk between meals rather than at the meals.

BREAKFAST (7 TO 8 A. M.) :

Fruit.

Whole milk (1 cupful).

Bread and butter.

Cereal.

LUNCH OR SUPPER (12 M. TO 1 P. M. OR 5 TO 6 P. M.) :

Whole milk (1 to 2 cupfuls).

One or two of the following three groups:

1. Bread or toast.
2. Macaroni or hominy, rice, or other cereal with milk, butter, molasses, cheese, or peanut butter.
3. Cookies, gingerbread, or other simple cakes.

One of the following three groups:

1. Green vegetable (mashed, boiled, baked, scalloped, in purée, soup, chowder, or salad; never fried).
2. An egg (poached, scrambled, boiled, in custard, and the like).
3. Fruit.

DINNER (12 TO 1 P. M. OR 5 TO 6 P. M.) :⁵

Bread and butter.

Potato, rice, hominy, or macaroni.

Meat, fish, eggs and cheese, dried beans, dried peas, or lentils.

Green vegetable. This should be a leafy vegetable three or four times a week.

Milk (if the full allowance of 1½ pints of whole milk has not been used in the other meals of the day).

Fruit, custard, or cereal pudding, or simple cakes.

⁵ If there is not time for the children who are in school to eat their main meal at noon the evening meal should be made proportionately more hearty. Children who carry a lunch to school should have a full dinner menu served for the evening meal.

CLOTHING

14. The standard of dress for the child in the institution should be as high as that for the average child with whom he associates in the community.

With such a standard the child in the institution is made a part of the general community life. Uniforms or special costumes set the child apart from the ordinary life of the community. They become the badge of misfortune and should never be used. A child's clothing ought to help him maintain his self-respect instead of destroying it.

15. Each child should have clothes that fit, that are becoming, and that are as different from the clothes worn by the other children in the institution as is compatible with a reasonable standard of economy.

Clothes must be adapted to the individual's taste and style if they are to give satisfaction to the wearer. Differences in color and variations in style will prevent the atmosphere of monotony that would arise if all the children were dressed exactly alike or practically alike. Clothes that are pleasing will receive better care than those disliked by the children and will help to develop their self-respect.

The style and type of clothing must be accommodated to the seasons. Wraps, also gloves, mittens, and overshoes, must be adequate for the climate.

Dress clothes for Sundays and social occasions are needed in addition to school and working clothes. Special play clothes sometimes prove to be an economy.

Accessories such as ribbons, ties, and handkerchiefs should be regarded as personal possessions.

Sufficient underwear and sleeping garments should be provided so that each child can change to a clean suit at least once a week.

16. No child should be compelled to wear garments that are out of date, outgrown, or in bad repair.

Articles that are out of date should be remodeled or discarded. Those which have been outgrown should be modified for some younger child or otherwise disposed of. Those which are in bad repair should be discarded if they can not be satisfactorily mended. Routine mending should regularly follow laundering. (Most of the mending should be done by paid help.)⁶

17. Garments should be marked. A record of the clothing given to each child is desirable.

Having garments plainly marked makes it easy to return to each child the same clothes after laundering and mending.⁶ The sense of ownership which this gives is an important element in the development and maintenance of self-respect and personal pride. Personal responsibility for clothes will also be more readily accepted.

18. Children should be taught to mend their clothes.

The older girls can mend their own things and boys can learn to sew on buttons. Responsibility for at least the simpler processes of repair will help to emphasize taking care of clothes and being responsible for their condition.

⁶ Southard, Lydia: *Institutional Household Administration*, pp. 110, 111. J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1923.

19. *Not more than two or three children should be expected to keep their clothes in one closet or wardrobe.*

Ventilated lockers should be provided if there are not enough built-in wardrobes. Some drawer space also is necessary for each child if the clothing is to be cared for conveniently and a proper pride in possession developed. The children's arrangement of their clothes in wardrobes or lockers and drawers should be supervised for hygienic disposal of garments which have been worn once or oftener as well as for orderly placing of freshly laundered articles and of accessories.

For list of references on food and clothing see Chapter XV, page 124.

Chapter VIII.—MENTAL HEALTH

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF MENTAL HEALTH

1. Every child has a personality which grows and which can be guided.¹

When we are dealing with children, whether average, superior, subnormal, or abnormal, we may always appraise their mental-health status in terms of:

1. Intelligence.
2. Sense of values.
3. Emotional control.
4. Morale.²

The term "intelligence" here expresses a general capacity for making mental adaptations. A sense of values enables the child to recognize the application of such abstract ideas as justice, truth, frankness, courage, and the appreciation of other persons' rights and the value of their good opinion. Control of the emotions is obviously an extremely important factor.

There are thousands of individuals who have only a limited degree of usefulness, owing to the fact that their intellectual capacities are handicapped by their emotional conflicts.³

Morale is a general expression for the degree of self-reliance and confidence in meeting every-day issues as well as extraordinary ones which is to be found in every human being.

2. Emotional stability and good physical health stimulate intellectual processes.⁴

The physical, intellectual, and emotional aspects of the child's life should not be considered independently of one another. They are closely interrelated. As intellectual processes are stimulated by good physical health and emotional stability, so also the emotional side of the child's life is profoundly altered if his physical body is out of adjustment. Hence it has come to be realized that just as there is need of physical-hygiene measures there may frequently be a need for mental-hygiene measures as well.

3. Mental health and wholesome emotional life are most easily secured in a normal home.

Because of the importance for the mental health of children of the normal emotional relationship between parent and child, in which the child centers his life of affection in the protective love of a parent, it is exceedingly desirable that children be kept with parents and not placed in institutions, if it is possible to accomplish it.

Children who have mothers competent to care for them should be kept in their own homes. No institution no matter how good can

¹ Gesell, Arnold, M. D.: "Mental-hygiene service for children." Social Aspects of Mental Hygiene, p. 90. Yale University Press and Oxford University Press. New Haven, Conn., and London, England, 1925.

² *Ibid.*, p. 96.

³ Thom, D. A., M. D.: The Practical Application of Mental Hygiene to the Welfare of the Child, p. 130. Reprinted by the U. S. Children's Bureau from the Proceedings of the Third Annual Conference of State Directors in Charge of the Local Administration of the Maternity and Infancy Act, 1926.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 131.

take the place of a mother's care. Through the loss of the family background the child may suffer from a sense of inadequacy and social inferiority; hence the importance of preserving the home ties if possible.

Some children who are admitted to institutions prove to have the type of personality which does not adapt itself to group life. If a child seems unhappy in the institution and if he continues to be resentful and uncooperative in spite of an earnest attempt to understand his troubles and to help him, a special effort should be made to try him in a family home even if his own home is out of the question. (Final exclusion from the institution should rest with the psychiatrist or psychologist. See Ch. V, Admissions, pp. 37-38.)

4. The principles of mental health for children should be considered in the treatment of children in institutions.

The laws and principles of mental health and mental development are less well understood than those for physical health and physical development. In view of this fact, it seems worth while to state the most general of them and then see how they apply to the care of children in institutions:

(a) An affectionate and intelligent interest in the child on the part of some adult whom the child recognizes as standing in the place of a parent and in whom his affections are centered.

(b) Individual treatment, based upon an understanding of the physical, mental, and social make-up of the child. Such an understanding can be reached only as the result of adequate scientific examinations. A child whose treatment is based upon an understanding of his nature and his capacities will not have demands made on him which are either too far above or too far below his possibilities of accomplishment.

(c) A relationship with adults which involves friendly cooperation and mutual helpfulness rather than that of mere domination on the part of the adults or a battle for supremacy on the part of the child.

(d) A daily régime which is well planned, regular, and suited to the age of the child. A daily régime which is correct in its alternation of sleep, work, study, and play helps to lay the foundations of a well-ordered personality.

(e) An environment so planned that it furnishes a full opportunity for self-initiated activity on the part of the child. A legitimately busy and interested child is a good child and has a better chance to be a healthy one.

(f) Normal association with other children under enough supervision, but not too much.

(g) Normal contacts with the larger community in which the child is ultimately to live.

5. Many children who have suffered from an inferior environment are likely to display minor conduct disorders.

Most of these can be corrected by wise treatment without danger that the other children will be subjected to corrupting influences; and it should be one of the functions of an institution to correct behavior problems. Institutions should be very slow to class young children as actually delinquent or as displaying delinquent tendencies and therefore properly to be excluded from their walls. (See Ch. V, Admissions, pp. 37-38.)

6. The more nearly the institution can reproduce the conditions of normal home life, the better for the child's mental health.

In a home environment the child finds his natural background and prepares himself for future adjustments. Children brought up without home life find it very hard as adults to become members of homes. Not only the social and emotional adjustments to family conditions, but the technique of family life should be part of the training and experience of every child. For this reason the cottage plan, in accordance with which a group of not more than 20 children form a family, with a housemother in charge of them (see p. 26), is by far the most desirable. The inclusion in each cottage of children of various ages, rather than segregation by age groups, also has its advantages. Most of the children who are in institutions will live in homes ultimately, and they should learn early the mental adjustment necessary in normal home conditions so far as the institution can approximate them.

SOME ESSENTIALS FOR MENTAL HEALTH

7. The child needs successful experience.

Successful experience has been urged as the second of the fundamental needs after the first great need of a child—a home:

We all know children who are silent and day dreaming, or who are embittered, or fearful, or sneaky, or bullying. They are all children who do not know success. They have not experienced the glow of self-respect which comes from accomplishment recognized by their peers. Success may come in the classroom, or the kitchen, or the swimming pool, or the dance floor, or the office, or the garden, but it is a teaching problem to see to it that every child finds something which he or she can do that has worth in his own eyes as well as in the estimation of his fellows.⁵

8. A child needs familiarity with the outside world.

Children in institutions need to know schools, churches, neighbors, parks, banks, factories, stores—all the life of the outside community—not as outsiders but as children from normal homes know them. They need to learn the value of money by spending real money. This is important not only from an educational standpoint but in promoting healthy emotional life.

9. Emotional instability is a serious problem in institutional life. The social handicap of the dependent child must be recognized, for in the process of the breakdown of the family many unfavorable influences have been brought to bear upon the children.

In addition to poverty, ill health, neglect, immorality, desertion, or whatever the immediate cause for removal of the child from his own home, there have been in the majority of homes bad environment and emotional instability. The hereditary and social forces which have brought the child to the institution have had a decided effect upon his character and personality. Those factors which tend to bring about mental ill health and maladjustment must be corrected or compensated so far as this is possible.

10. The chief factor in providing an environment which is favorable to the development of the best in the child's nature is a high type of personnel.

⁵ Ueland, Elsa: A reevaluation of methods of child care—the care of children in institutions. National Conference of Social Work, Proceedings, 1924, pp. 128-130.

The most important influence in the life of a child is that exerted by the people with whom he comes in contact. The essential element for successful living in institutions is wise direction.

The time has come to shift the emphasis from houses and lands to the more vital center of educative force in the life of the child, namely, to the personality of teacher, foster parents, or companion. * * * Of all the working forces which make or mar the child's future well-being, the personality of those in close touch with him far outranks every other influence. * * * If the institution is managed so that the children come into intimate relations with adult characters who are strong, sympathetic, intellectually alert, and socially, morally, and spiritually uplifting, it ceases to be a mere abiding place where the creature comforts only are provided and becomes a cultural school home from which the children go forth better prepared to make their own way in the world.⁶

11. The selection of persons of adequate training and desirable type of personality to place in immediate charge of the children is the most important single factor in providing for their mental health.

This is probably the point at which children's institutions are most apt to fail. The idea that any able-bodied woman who is willing to undertake the task can be trusted to take charge of children has been tragically widespread. The general scale of salaries paid has been too small to attract women of the degree of culture, education, and personality needed. No single investment that institutions can make for the welfare of their wards is more important than that necessary to have women of superior training and personality in charge of the children. The staff should consist of—

(a) A pediatrician. (See Ch. VI, Physical Care, p. 44.)
 (b) A consulting psychiatrist, to whom may be referred children whose behavior borders on the pathological (see p. 63). The plan of individual treatment of the child, both social and educational, should be based upon the analysis made by the psychiatrist or psychologist.

(c) A psychological examiner, capable of determining the child's mental level and making an analysis of his personality. The psychological examiner should be a clinical psychologist who knows not merely how to give mental tests but also how to interpret them in the light of the child's physical condition, his social history and home conditions, and his educational history (see p. 45).

(d) An educational adviser, who can help to establish an educational régime for children of preschool age and who can show the staff how to use for educational ends the opportunities afforded by the institution (see p. 90). Such matters as the care of animals, care of the lawn, gardening, housework, sewing, and the care of younger children may be made useful educational activities or harmful and oppressive pieces of drudgery, depending upon how they are organized and how the children are employed in them.

(e) A recreational adviser, who knows how to organize and direct music, games, dramatics, and expeditions, and how to secure for children in the institution a share of the recreational life of the community. In a small institution the educational and recreational advising might be done by one person (see p. 96).

⁶ Reeder, Rudolph R.: *How Two Hundred Children Live and Learn*, pp. 192, 194, 195. Noble & Noble, New York, 1911.

(f) Cottage mothers who have at least high-school education and who, if possible, have some specific training in the care and management of children (see p. 12). They should be selected carefully with reference to personality—even-tempered, self-controlled, cheerful, wise women, with a keen interest in children and liking for them. Nothing affects the personality of a little child more vitally than the atmosphere created for him by the persons in charge. If he must be separated from his mother, then he has a right to affectionate understanding and sympathetic treatment from the person who takes her place.

12. The most vital years in laying the foundations of character and personality are the first five years of life.

A child learns more in the first five years of life, before the school comes in contact with him, than in any other equal period of time. If children under 5 years of age are to do their learning to good advantage they need to have the stage carefully set for it. They need teaching, though not the formal teaching of the schools. Children learn by trying things, exploring, experimenting. They need to be furnished with a great variety of things to do from babyhood on. Many children's institutions fail completely to provide for the normal activities of very young children. Such institutions lose their greatest opportunity for service to the children. To keep little children just sitting still with nothing to do, or just running around a bare room, constitutes a serious form of neglect of their real needs.

13. The most fundamental social attitudes become established in the preschool period.

The kind of training and management which a child receives at this time has a permanent effect on his character and personality. Attitudes formed then are hard to modify later.

14. The child's attitude toward love and affection is formed in early years.

Children in institutions are apt to suffer most in lack of personal affection. A child in an institution should be helped and stimulated to maintain an affectionate relationship with members of his family from whom he is separated. There are relatively few children without some ties of relationship, which are vital to their development and which should be preserved. Family affection should be kept alive by frequent letters and by occasional visits of the child to his relatives and of relatives to the institution. It should be one of the duties of the trained workers of the institution to try to keep the child and the home in touch with each other.

15. A child should have real affection from his housemother in the institution.

Children may suffer from too much coddling and too violent expressions of love on the part of adults, but very few children in institutions are likely to suffer from this kind of spoiling. They are much more apt to have too little of the feeling of being loved and petted, and they become hard and resentful from lack of it. They should learn to give and receive wholesome affection. If the cottage mother can win the child's affection and confidence she can safeguard him in many ways. The best kind of sex instruction (see p. 75) is that given in response to questions asked by the

child of an adult whom he loves and trusts. To maintain such an atmosphere of confidence requires individual treatment for each child.

16. A manifestation of interest in each child's personal projects helps to maintain the right spirit.

Birthday celebrations are of value, for example. If each child's birthday can not be celebrated individually, all the children whose birthdays are in the same month may celebrate together. Then these children prepare the "party" for those whose birthdays come in the following month, and they act as hosts for it. The actual outlay of effort when the cottage mother arranges for a child to be an "honor guest," with perhaps a cake and candles at dinner, is slight in proportion to the children's enjoyment of the celebration (see p. 100).

17. Children must learn early to obey, yet they must also learn to control and direct themselves and to be independent.

To some extent children must yield to authority and be directed. Too much demand for obedience and too much domination on the part of adults is bad for children. If they try to resist, as the best of them do, they become stubborn and set themselves off in opposition to adults. If they yield they lose initiative and the power of self-direction. Children may also be harmed by too little demand for obedience; but children in institutions are more apt to suffer from too much "bossing" than from too little. The ideal to be sought is that of self-direction and self-control on the part of the child.

18. Children should be guarded against all unnecessary fears. Serious effort should be made to understand children's fears and to overcome them.

A profound effect may be exerted on the child by fears, often intense, which seem absurd to adults (see pp. 70-72). Much of the behavior of young children which seems erratic or naughty can be traced to fears, most of them foolish but none the less real to the child. Under no circumstances must children be threatened, as a means of punishment, with things of which they are afraid (see pp. 72, 81).

19. A regard for property rights may be taught to very young children.

Children should have possessions of their own when they are very young. Other people should respect these objects and not take them without permission. The children in turn must learn to respect the property of others and never take what belongs to another person without asking permission. Children should, of course, learn to share and to be generous, but they can not learn the joy of giving unless they possess. Many institutions fail to provide for training about property. One essential is that each child have at least a drawer or locker in which to keep his own possessions (see pp. 61, 101).

20. The young child's attitude toward truth telling and reality depends chiefly upon the persons with whom he comes in daily contact.

The most effective method of establishing a habit of truth telling and a respect for the truth is by telling the truth to children. They

are naturally truthful. Children, if they learn to lie, usually learn through the example set by adults. It is very essential to select as caretakers for children people who are themselves strictly truthful. Punishments which are too severe may lead to untruthfulness. Little children must be helped to distinguish between dreams and reality—or between imaginings and reality. They should never be punished for telling imaginary tales, nor should the tale be accepted as true. They should be taught the difference between stories and plays for fun and therefore legitimate as games, and that which is real.

21. The attitude of young children toward their companions must be observed. Desirable attitudes should be encouraged and undesirable ones must be discouraged.

Children only 3 or 4 years old often display marked social reactions; older ones usually do. Some of them are excessively shy; some are domineering; some are self-conscious; many of them are selfish; occasionally one is cruel to his companions or dishonest; some of them are too yielding and lacking in initiative; and some are very responsible and full of executive ability. The group situation affords an excellent background for the correction of excessive tendencies and for the cultivation of the desirable types of reaction. Children are sensitive to the judgments of their own group. It rests with the person in charge whether the group association is made the means of valuable social training or whether it is made a situation which oppresses, subdues, or even perverts the children.

For list of references on mental health see Chapter XV, page 125.

Chapter IX.—HABIT FORMATION¹

HABITS AND THEIR DEVELOPMENT

1. The health, happiness, and efficiency of the adult man and woman depend to a very large extent upon the type of habits they acquire from their training and experience during early life.

"Habit" is such a common, everyday sort of term, with which everyone is more or less familiar, that it hardly seems necessary to discuss it at all. However, it is in this very fact—that habits are so commonplace and ordinary in the minds of the great mass of individuals—that the danger lies. All too frequently the fundamental importance of forming right habits in early life is minimized or overlooked altogether.

2. Not only habits of acting but habits of thinking and feeling, habits in regard to the care of the body—eating, sleeping, eliminating, bathing—are easily formed and vitally affect health.

The morals of most of us are, to a large extent, the result of habits of thinking formed in early life—our attitude toward the drinking of alcoholic liquors or the taking of others' property, or the problem of sex, as well as our attitude toward other people, whether sincere or deceitful, friendly or antagonistic. Most of our prejudices are the outcome of habits of thinking formed in childhood.

3. All these tendencies toward thinking and acting in certain ways, which are called habitual, are the outgrowth of training and experience. They are not inherited.

We begin to form habits at birth and continue to do so throughout life, forming them quickly and easily in youth and more slowly and with difficulty as the years advance. The oftener the act is repeated or the thought is indulged in the more lasting the habit becomes. Since habit formation begins early and is more or less constant throughout life, it is of great importance that emphasis be placed upon establishment of desirable habits.

4. A child has a mental life far more delicate and complex than his physical body, far more difficult to keep in order, and far more easily put out of adjustment.

A child lives a real mental life, full of hopes, ambitions, doubts, misgivings, joys, sorrows, and strivings that are being gratified or thwarted much the same at 3 years of age as they will be at 30.

5. Study of the child is the first step in an individualized program.

Study the child. Find out why he behaves as he does. Is he aggressive, belligerent, and defiant? Is he sullen and resentful, or does he explode in outbursts of temper which clear the atmosphere? It may be that he is shy, quiet, and always a model of good behavior,

¹ The material in this chapter is largely a summary and adaptation of sections of Child Management and of Habit Clinics by Dr. D. A. Thom (U. S. Children's Bureau Publications Nos. 143 and 135, Washington, 1925 and 1924).

letting life slip past him without taking an active part. Think the thing over; try to see his reasoning. Remember that the attitude he is showing may be the very opposite of what he really feels. Aggressiveness and defiance may be a mask for feelings of failure and discouragement; passive indifference may cover deeply wounded feelings. On the other hand, the child's conduct may be only the result of imitation and may be patterned after an admired "grown-up" or child with whom he comes in contact.

6. The attitude of concern regarding what other people think is a force which may be used in developing right conduct.

Rarely is a child found who does not care for the approval of some one, and training should make a child realize that it is to his advantage to win approbation for desirable acts. Praise for unselfishness, kindness, and general consideration for others tends to perpetuate that type of conduct.

Real sympathy for others, which is one of the finest qualities of personality, may be developed by training and form the basis of a habit of kindness and understanding which will last throughout life.

JEALOUSY

7. Few emotions are experienced by man which, from a social point of view, are more important than jealousy.

Anger and frequently hatred toward the object of jealousy are aroused by this emotion. It causes the jealous individual to feel disregarded and inferior to his friends and neighbors, it damages pride, and it lowers self-respect. This may produce a desire for revenge and retaliation or may cause him to withdraw and hide his true feelings under a mask of indifference. The jealous child is likely to be one who in early life has not had the opportunity of developing interests outside himself.

8. Jealousy results in a tremendous handicap.

It is the jealous child who becomes the jealous man or woman, and as a child he encounters innumerable difficulties in getting on with his playmates. Because of this he develops a sense of failure and shame which is a serious handicap. He feels wronged and neglected; he has missed a "square deal." His self-centeredness becomes more marked, and he draws away from his playmates and the activities of life thoroughly discouraged; or he may become domineering and pugnacious in an effort to gain attention for himself. Later in life this emotion causes an inability to share in the joys of others and makes it impossible to see others succeed without manifesting open resentment. The jealous person becomes an object of dislike. Often he develops the idea that he is unjustly treated or persecuted, and too frequently this idea causes uncontrolled resentment and disastrous results.

FEAR

9. Fear is perhaps the most common emotion which human beings experience, yet it is extremely doubtful whether the child has any inherent fears at birth. Most fears are produced by some experience through which the individual has had to pass in early life.

In dealing with children we are very prone to speak of their foolish fears, yet they are foolish and unreasonable to us as adults simply because of our inability to understand how certain experiences have left upon the mind of the child impressions and feelings which govern conduct for a long time.

10. *There appear to be two distinct types of fear, which may be called objective and subjective fears.*

Objective fears, aroused usually by things seen or heard, are recognized easily in most cases and are comparatively easy to overcome. Subjective fears are often so vague that the causes are very hard to find.

11. *Fears of things which can be seen or heard, like animals, policemen, doctors, lightning, guns, and high places, are objective.*

Sometimes the child has forgotten the experience with which the fear was associated in the first place, but if it can be recalled the fear can be taken out of it by a straightforward explanation. Some fears due to unpleasant experiences may even extend to objects which are merely associated with that experience. For instance, a child who has been hurt in a physician's office may be afraid to enter any place which looks like such an office. A book agent, with his black bag, may be a terrifying figure to such a child. This kind of fear may be overcome by gradually associating pleasant things with the same situation or by appealing to the child's courage and urging him to face his fears bravely.

Some children are afraid of anything new or strange, but they soon become accustomed to it if they are allowed to do so gradually. It is a mistaken notion that a child should be pushed into a situation where he is afraid in an effort to "train him." A little child who cries at his first experience of bathing in the ocean is not helped by being thrown in, but, on the contrary, often gets an experience of dread and a fear of water which can not be overcome easily.

Fear of animals may occur at a very early age but usually passes off as soon as the child becomes accustomed to the sight of them, unless he has some especially unfortunate experience in being frightened either by the animal itself or by threats that the animal will get him if he is not a good boy.

12. *Children quickly adopt the attitude of persons around them, be it of bravery or of fear.*

Imitation plays an important part in the development and control of fear. Adults who have shown fear when they thought the children were not noticing should not wonder where the children got their fear of lightning or of animals. Adults who are terrified by such things and whose fear is seen by the child can be of no assistance to him. If they are apprehensive of lurking marauders or if they have talked of ghost stories in the presence of a child, they are helping to develop fear in him rather than teaching him an intelligent control of fear.

13. *Subjective fears are more intangible than objective fears. They are very hard to trace back to their causes and to overcome.*

They are based on the feelings and attitudes of the child toward something which he has heard and upon which he has brooded without daring to express his fear. They are often so vague that

an adult would not dream that a child could be thinking of such things. As Victor Hugo says in his Recollections of Childhood:

But a thing once said sinks in the mind; that which has struck the brain often from time to time comes back again, and in the breast of simple infancy lives unexplained full many a mystery.

For example, vague and poorly formulated ideas about death are the basis of more mental anxiety in children than is generally supposed. To one child death meant being buried in a hole; another child had a fear of being buried alive; and many children are disturbed by the line in the evening prayer which is familiar to most children, "If I should die before I wake." It would be impossible to state all the vague fantasies of childhood about this ever-present problem of death, but it should not be difficult to give the average child a conception of death and the hereafter which will do much to allay the common fears surrounding this mystery.

14. Fear is a driving force in human conduct. It is useless to talk about eradicating fear, but in training the child every effort should be made to see that fear does not become a curse instead of a means of protection.

A child should fear punishment, danger, loss of the approval of those he cares for, and, when he becomes old enough to appreciate it, loss of the approval of his own conscience. He should not have to spend his early years weighed down by fears which make him nervous and sleepless at times, afraid to play happily or work with enthusiasm, all because some one found it convenient to get him to obey through fear or failed to help him by wise understanding and explanation at the right time to get rid of the scars of unpleasant experiences.

Fear makes us do things; it keeps us from doing them. It protects from danger, and without a reasonable amount of fear mankind could not live.

ANGER

15. Anger is an intense emotion which almost every one experiences from time to time and which often leads to undesirable conduct.

Because their training and experience are limited and because they have not developed adequate self-control, children often show a vicious attitude toward any object which has aroused their anger. How often the little child is seen to turn in wrath on the blocks that will not stay in place or the train of cars that will not go. He strives to break and destroy them because he can not construct or operate them as he wishes.

Anger is frequently stimulated when any of the instinctive tendencies are thwarted or obstructed. The child, and the adult, too, manifest anger when personal wants are obstructed or when pride and self-importance are injured. Fear with no outlet for flight or escape may arouse anger, as in the animal at bay. It is produced by innumerable causes that may operate in the environment in which the individual is living, and it may express itself in many different ways.

16. The reason for the anger is particularly important in dealing with the temper problems of children. The vital thing is not the anger; this is only a danger signal which warns us to probe deeper for the fundamental cause from which it arises.

In dealing with anger in children it is necessary not only to be sure that a certain act was an expression of anger but also to determine so far as possible how the anger was aroused. If a child for two weeks has been breaking window glass, an investigation may show, among other things, that he was always angry when he broke the glass. The next step in solving the problem is to find out the circumstances and conditions of the environment which produced this emotion of anger. In one case of this kind the cause was jealousy; but it might well have been stimulated by many other feelings, such as resentment at receiving punishment which the child felt was undeserved, or failure in school or at games.

The anger shown by most children is not out of proportion to the stimulation, is of short duration, and is a normal, healthy reaction. In fact it might be said that there is something wrong with the child who never becomes angry.

17. The so-called temper tantrum, an uncontrolled outburst of kicking and screaming, is a common dramatic physical demonstration of anger and resentment and is frequently used by the child to get his own way.

A temper tantrum may result in undesirable conduct for the moment, and then the atmosphere may clear until the next occasion for anger arises. Almost invariably the temper tantrums manifested by children work out, either directly or indirectly, to their advantage for the moment at least. The child may be determined to have his own way; or craves attention, no matter how it is gained; or feels that he can obtain a bribe if he holds out long enough. The demonstration the youngster makes of his anger is so spectacular and impressive to those who have denied him his desires that they surrender and agree to his demands in order to avoid further unpleasant scenes. It is quite amazing to see the acuteness with which a child can choose the time and place where giving in to him will seem almost a necessity. In this way the child quickly learns that he can partly control his surroundings. Soon the tantrums originally due to situations arousing intense emotion are produced to dodge any situation requiring submission to the will of others. The temper has become out of all proportion to the demands of the occasion, and the child will stage a violent tantrum as readily over a trifle as over some real grievance.

18. The child who meets all difficult situations in life with chronic irritability or a temper tantrum is in grave danger of developing other personality defects later which will make of him an unhappy, inadequate adult.

In the first place, the child who has these explosions of temper is likely to be emotionally unstable by nature, the type of child who is not capable of withstanding the average amount of stress and strain without undue fatigue. Temper tantrums are only one of the many symptoms of nervous fatigue in childhood. They are often preceded by restless sleep, capricious habits regarding food, fault-finding, and complaints of being "picked upon" by playmates and unjustly treated by associates and teachers. This may indicate that the child is in need of more rest and sleep, as well in need of more energetic play during his waking hours. He should not be confined to the house and cut off from playmates—a situation which in itself

makes him self-centered, cross, and hard to please and keeps him in a chronic state of tension, ready to explode at any moment.

19. If temper tantrums, when considered in relation to the exciting cause and the personality of the child, represent his unconscious protest against the thwarting of some fundamental desire, every effort should be made to determine the cause and remove it or to alter the child's attitude toward it.

Suppose the boy in his play is quietly following out a line of action he has planned and is eager to finish. At a word from an uninterested "grown-up" all his plans and efforts must be stopped or tossed aside, whether he can see any reason for this or not. Is there any cause for surprise that he should show his resentment in the most emphatic way possible for him?

On the other hand, if tantrums have become habitual—that is, a crude method of gaining an end, as described in paragraph 17, then it must be made clear that they will no longer work out to the child's advantage. Once a definite stand is adopted, it will not take the child long to see that his former methods of gaining his ends are no longer tolerated; that he is making no material gain and is losing approbation by his conduct. When once he senses this the temper tantrums will be discarded.

20. Anger is not always expressed by explosive reactions.

Some children become sullen and moody when angered. This may harm the child more than the temper tantrum does. It frequently leads to brooding and unhealthy fantasy formation of a revengeful nature, which gradually may cause the child's interests to "turn in" and his energy to be wasted in living a "dream life" of things as he would have them and not as they really are.

There is a group of cases in which the individual is so overcome by anger that temporarily action is quite impossible. Common expressions, such as "being paralyzed by rage" and "so mad I could not speak," convey well the idea. This type of reaction is not so common in children, yet it does exist. Frequently the emotion is pent up and repressed from day to day until it reaches the breaking point. Then suddenly and without apparent reason, or perhaps for some trivial cause, the explosion takes place, and those with whom the child comes in daily contact can not understand how this hitherto quiet, reserved youngster could have produced such an outburst.

21. The control of anger depends upon the development of certain inhibitions or restraints.

If the child is to become a self-controlled and useful adult it is essential that certain inhibitions be established early in life. The important thing for the child to learn is that the natural tendency to react to this emotion by retaliation does not work out at all times to his advantage.

22. Many periodic and apparently unexplainable outbursts of anger might be avoided if the child's general condition were considered from time to time.

Are there any evidences of nervous fatigue, such as twitching or jerking of the larger muscles or blinking of the eyes? Is he eating and sleeping well, and is his elimination good? Is he getting on well in school? Does he mix well with other children, or do they tease him; and if so, why? Does he play with older or younger

children? Is he inclined to be a bully? Does he take his part in games? What are his duties outside the school? Has he enough exercise out of doors? What is he thinking about? What are his problems, hopes, and disappointments? If he seems unhappy, what is the cause of his discontent? He may be jealous or troubled by some ill-defined fear, or worried by the problem of sex. He may feel inferior to others, and needs to be helped to see things clearly and in their true light.

The big task is to see that the child is happy and that he is learning how to meet the problems of everyday life successfully.

SEX EDUCATION AND SEX PROBLEMS

23. A large percentage of all mental conflicts and abnormalities in adults and children are directly caused by unfortunate attitudes or experiences with the ever-present force which sex creates in all mental life, or they are colored by them.

The very fact that discussion of sex is refrained from in the presence of the child accounts for the intense curiosity which many children develop at an early age regarding the subject. All too frequently the child's natural desire to be enlightened on this subject just as freely as on any other is met by cold reserve, a sharp rebuff, or a dishonest answer from one who in all other ways is a considerate and wise guide. Therefore it is not surprising that the child soon learns to keep to himself the knowledge he has gained from his own investigations or has gathered from some more sophisticated playmate, and soon becomes self-conscious about his sex life.

The housemother should be the friend and confidant of the child, encouraging him to bring to her his daily experiences, remembering that she stands in place of the child's own mother. The evening hour around the fire can be made a time of great influence in the life of the child.

The housemother should realize the obligation to teach the child the sacredness of the body and to interpret rightly to the child the vital facts of his existence in answer to his questions. If such questions are answered in the right time and way by the right person, much suffering as the result of violation of physical and moral law may be avoided.^{1a}

A child should never be told that his questions are "bad" or "dirty" or "shameful." If he asks them at an embarrassing moment he need only be quietly informed—with no show of emotion—that he will be told all about that later when there is more time to talk with him. He must be led to appreciate that such subjects are private, like many other matters which are not made subjects of general conversation. Care must be taken, however, that the child does not as a consequence associate all matters of sex with those of elimination.

Children may early develop a sensitiveness in regard to their bodies and a curiosity to see themselves and others nude. On the other hand, they may become overmodest and prudish. Try never to

^{1a} Helpful pamphlets for instruction on sex hygiene can be obtained from the American Social Hygiene Association, 370 Seventh Ave., New York.

arouse special interest or attract the child's attention to his body. This early period of what may be called awareness is transitory, unless emphasized by unwise treatment on the part of the adults; and it should play no more important part in the life of the child than does the early habit of bed wetting.

24. Little children have no thought of wrongdoing when first practicing masturbation, and care should be taken that they are not shamed and severely punished, as this may injure their pride, cause them to become self-conscious, focus their interest, and make them cling tenaciously to the habit.

In every case where a child is found to indulge in the practice of masturbation a careful examination should be made to determine whether there is any physical cause such as irritation, constipation, intestinal worms, local adhesions, or other abnormalities. The urine should be examined for hyperacidity and for bacteria which might indicate an inflammatory condition. The genitals must be kept free from accumulation of any foreign matter. The child's trousers and underwear should be well fitting. Too tight or irritating clothing is a source of much annoyance to children and draws their attention to their bodies.

25. With some children masturbation is only a symptom of an unhappy state of mind. The habit then comes to afford a retreat when life, with its manifold problems, becomes too complicated and lacking in satisfaction.

The practice under these circumstances may be compared to the situation of the adult who turns to drink for momentary relief. The child who is moody or lonely or who has been punished may resort to the practice for consolation and comfort. If this is the case the problem is quite different and far more difficult. The personality of the individual needs careful investigation, and no generalization will be of value. Those in charge of the child must know him well and must understand his moods and the causes. They should learn his interests, plans, and hopes, and what brings happiness and satisfaction to him.

26. Those in charge of children should not allow fear and anxiety to sway them and to make them give the habit of masturbation more weight than it should have.

The big thing to remember is that the dangers to the physical and mental well-being of the child are more apt to come from the adult's own attitude and unwise treatment than from the habit itself.

ENURESIS (BED WETTING)

27. Before treating enuresis as an undesirable habit it is necessary to eliminate, so far as possible, every organic cause.

Enuresis may occur both day and night. It occurs in both sexes with about the same frequency. It may begin in infancy and last until the sixth or seventh year or even longer, or it may cease at the end of the first year with the condition returning at indefinite periods and lasting from a few days to a few months at a time.

Conditions affecting the bladder, acute inflammations, and calculi are the most common physical causes of enuresis. Local irritations,

an adherent prepuce, phimosis, or a narrow meatus should also be considered. Rectal irritations due to worms or fissures may exist. Incontinence of urine is frequently associated with a high concentration and acidity of urine due to insufficient fluid intake. Much more commonly the enuresis may be brought about by too great an intake of fluids, which naturally increases the amount of fluid to be excreted. The more general conditions—anemia, malnutrition, and an unstable nervous system (of which enuresis is only a symptom)—should receive proper consideration.

28. The cause and persistence of enuresis depend upon faulty habit formation in many cases where no organic cause can be found.

In most cases the condition is purely habit, often associated with other habits which indicate an unstable or highly nervous system.²

The most common failures in developing correct habits about the use of the toilet have to do with the age at which training is undertaken and with the emotional atmosphere that surrounds the training. * * * The child whose training is begun as late as 2 years of age or more has already reached a stage of greater independence of personality and of fondness for the negative reaction. He is apt to resent and to resist training as a younger baby does not.³

There are a few generalizations that may be made about every case. Any demand for excessive mental strain should be avoided so far as possible. The child should have definite hours of sleep. His diet should be a simple one free from spices and sweets. Routine measures should be instituted to prevent constipation.

29. One of the first and most important steps in the treatment of enuresis is to interest the child in making an effort to overcome the habit.

The changes that should be induced in the attitude of the child have been noted as follows: "Eliminate fear. Build a faith that success can be attained. Stimulate interest in success. Develop a sense of responsibility on the part of the child for his own behavior. * * * Getting the child to adopt the idea that he can learn to waken himself at night when he needs the toilet is a long step toward success."⁴

30. The chart system has been utilized with gratifying success in cases of enuresis. The child keeps his own chart and makes a mark for each day and night of success. Over each mark is placed a star.

The best policy is to mark successful days only and leave the unsuccessful days blank. * * * Fully as important as developing a strong interest and motive is the development of a sense of responsibility on the part of the child. It is absolutely essential that the child be made to feel that attending to his own toilet needs is distinctly his job and that he can not depend upon any outsider to do it for him. * * * In many instances the child whose sense of responsibility about bed wetting must be aroused is also in need of it in other directions.⁵

31. The habit is rarely overcome through punishment but is frequently conquered by appealing to the child's love of approbation.

² Holt, Emmett L., and John Howland: *The Diseases of Infancy and Childhood*, p. 665. D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1919.

³ Woolley, Helen T.: "Enuresis as a psychological problem." *Mental Hygiene* [New York], Vol. X, No. 1 (January, 1926), pp. 41-42.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 50.

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 52-53.

Persons in charge of children should not blame or punish them for bed wetting. It has been well stated that—

Bed wetting is not a conscious and willful performance save in a few instances when revenge or fear are motivating factors. Rare, indeed, is the child who enjoys enuresis, and few are there who reveal its existence as part of a pleasurable or frightful dream. There are those who fear to get up in the darkness of the night or who dislike exposure to cold and therefore do not exert great resistance to urination. There are others who in deep sleep fail to be aroused or who manage to awaken just in the act of urination. In almost all cases the bed wetting causes a sense of shame and a sensitiveness to criticism. The terms of disparagement visited upon the victim only tend to increase his fears and to weaken his confidence in the possibility of self-control.

Mentally defective children are lacking in their higher cerebral processes, and the formation of useful social habits is attended with difficulty. Hence there is a higher frequency of enuresis among the mentally deficient than among average children. But enuresis itself is not an index of weak mental powers. It is exceedingly frequent among highly intelligent children, and even more prevalent among children with that highly nervous organization which, for lack of better understanding, we term neurotic. The very bright, alert, impulsive, quick-acted type, or the dreamy, self-conscious, sensitive, shy, capable type provide a large proportion of the children whose enuresis disturbs the home.

Whether stupid, dull, average, bright, or precocious, the habits of conscious control over the bladder may be developed or strengthened by particular appeals.⁶

32. The feelings of inferiority and shame that are associated with enuresis may color the child's entire mental life.

If the methods used in training for the toilet are repressive and the child is sensitive, he may develop a fear of not being able to control himself and thereby actually prevent control. Intense social disapproval is an even more common source of this type of fear than is severe physical punishment.

33. Suggestion just as the child is going to sleep at night has worked well in a certain group of cases.

When the child is just about to fall asleep he is asked to repeat over and over again, "I am not going to wet the bed." Some important general suggestions that should be kept in mind by persons in charge of children afflicted with the habit of enuresis are: "Stop all punishments. Stop all arguing and rowing. Stop all displays of intense emotional concern and substitute for them a matter-of-fact attitude. Cultivate an optimistic spirit. * * * Very frequently some outside source of stimulation and inspiration is necessary. * * * Often a new social situation furnishes a most vital kind of interest and motive for controlling enuresis."⁸

For list of references on habit formation see Chapter XV, page 125.

⁶ Wile, Ira S.: *The Challenge of Childhood*, pp. 29, 30. Thomas Seltzer, New York, 1925.

⁷ Woolley, Helen T.: "Enuresis as a psychological problem." *Mental Hygiene* [New York], Vol. X (1926), No. 1 (January), p. 46.

⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 50-52.

Chapter X.—SPIRITUAL AND MORAL TRAINING

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION

1. Instruction in accord with the faith of their parents should be provided for all children. It should be definite and positive.

It is a principle of good social work to provide for the training of children in the religion of their parents. The type of religious training to be given will necessarily be determined by the individual institution. Expression is given to the need for religious training in the following quotations from authorities on institutional care for dependent children:

The natural starting point and the surest foundation for moral instruction is the religious instinct. Early in childhood nearly all children learn of a Supreme Being called God, and that in some way or other He is concerned in their conduct and welfare. Whether their relation to God is chiefly that of fear or of love depends upon the child's early religious training. To many children, God is a being to be feared rather than loved. It has been said that man is a religious animal. At least, religious instincts seem to be basic in his nature. To permit the child to grow up, therefore, without religious training fails to develop these fundamental instincts. Early impressions persist, and it is extremely important that the child begin his religious life with impressions that draw him toward God as father, teacher, and friend whom he would like to please.¹

The staff must remember that upon them devolve the duties of parents as well as school-teachers. In many cases children look to them for all the religious training they will ever receive * * *. Religious instruction should not be confined to the classroom but should be correlated with the child's daily life. Numerous opportunities are afforded the group mother during the day in the associations of the group to bring home the lessons of religion and the stories of the Bible.²

It is our endeavor to make the religious life of our children harmonize with their social life, so that they may look upon it with spiritual joy and satisfaction, the remembrance of which will linger in their minds long after they have left their alma mater and have become independent members of society.³

2. Instruction in great religious experiences as taught in the Bible should be given understandingly.

Mechanical or rote memorizing of songs, psalms, or chapters, without understanding, had better be avoided. The constant repetition often begets indifference. But fine classical expressions of the virtue of obedience (Samuel's rebuke to Saul); of patriotic devotion (the Jew's lament for Jerusalem when in captivity); of humility (prayers of the Pharisee and the publican); of dependence on God (Solomon's prayer when taking over the kingdom); of personal attachment (Ruth's words to Naomi); of neighborly kindness (story of the Good Samaritan); of God's universal requirement of all men (He hath showed thee, O man, what is good and what doth the Lord

¹ Reeder, Rudolph R.: Statement in personal communication.

² A Program for Catholic Child-Caring Homes (report of the committee on standards, Sisters' Conference, National Conference of Catholic Charities, 1923, Proceedings), p. 16. Obtainable from the Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.

³ Report of board of directors of the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society, p. 19. Pleasantville, N. Y., 1924.

require of thee but to do justly, love mercy, and walk humbly with thy God), and many more like them should be taught and memorized understandingly, together with other religious classics.

MORAL TRAINING

3. Moral training in an institution depends upon the atmosphere and tone of the institution and the relation between staff and children rather than upon formal moral instruction.

Play associates, example, and imitation are the great factors in moral training. Rules, regulations, and instruction in moral training without experience and contact with strong personalities are empty and ineffective. Moral convictions must be developed through experience. Character-developing experience is a part of the daily life of the child as it is of the adult.

4. In order that children may have the moral training that comes through experience, an environment rich and varied in interests and activities is necessary.

Without many-sided interests, richness of content, and range of child experiences little can be done in moral training. Play life with plenty of play material and personal possessions, competition, and team work; work life in which the child makes and builds and buys and sells; social life in which he is conscious of his obligation to contribute to the pleasure of others; school life in which he learns his own powers; religious instruction with story and biography—all these are pregnant with moral content. Much of this content, however, may not appear in the consciousness of the child unless his attention is directed to it through interpretation and instruction.

5. Children should have as much moral freedom as they can stand or as much as they will not seriously abuse.

If their environment is so restricted that they can never make wrong choices there is little opportunity for development of self-control and moral decision. Hence freedom to choose, with wise guidance, and range of environment in play, work, and school, offer moral options indispensable to sound moral training. Substantial character building is impossible where children are hedged in on every side by walls, rules, and regulations, or by programs of play, work, and study that run in deep grooves. Moral training of children must lead to—but not compel—right choices. Forced choosing is a contradiction of terms. The most important factor in child training is the conscious cooperation of the child.

6. Self-respect must be developed in the children.

The best defense an individual can have against many temptations is his own self-respect. Conditions in the lives of many dependent children have tended to destroy self-respect; the experience in the institution must be such that it will rebuild this. Suitable clothes are a help. The ability to succeed in something is essential if one is to believe in himself. Something at which even the dullest can excel and make a contribution to the group life must be discovered and receive favorable comment.

7. More than the usual emphasis should be given to the moral training of the dependent child.

The dependent child is deprived of the close ties of the family home which are a source of strength. Hence he must learn to rely upon himself earlier in life than is necessary for the child whose situation is normal.

DISCIPLINE

8. Obedience to authority is one of the fundamental lessons which must be learned in childhood.

Obedience to rightly constituted authority is a basic principle of society. Without it no program of child training is adequate or safe. But external control should gradually pass over into self-control, the child thereby achieving moral freedom. That person is free who does as he pleases but pleases to do right. Hence the ability to direct and to become independent must be encouraged.

9. Too much demand for obedience from children and too much domination of them on the part of adults has a demoralizing effect.

The ideal of conduct should not be so high that attainment of it is nearly impossible nor the goal of achievement so far distant that it makes effort seem futile. The children must be made to feel, however, that obedience is expected. Commands should be few, well thought out, definitely enforced, and positive rather than negative in form. If directions have not been given plainly and simply and the child's attention has not been fully obtained, a child may disobey quite unintentionally. Before children are charged with disobedience their motives for their actions should be fully ascertained.⁴

10. Discipline based upon fear is bad, no matter how perfect the order may be. It weakens rather than strengthens self-control in the child.

It may be put down as generally true that wherever punishment is made a prominent feature in the lives of children self-control and moral standards are at low ebb. Efficient moral character, the goal toward which we work in all our educative endeavors, is an inner structure, not an outward form. Where punishment functions largely there is certain to be a lack of wholesome incentive to self-mastery and constructive moral effort.

In order that punishment shall not have a large place in the training of children it is, first of all, necessary to provide abundantly for their occupation. A child left to his own devices is a danger signal. To require a child to behave and yet give him nothing to do is cruel. Under such conditions authority is maintained by fear of punishment only. It is entirely external and has but little or no educative worth. To attempt to make punishment take the place of occupation and wholesome incentives in the training of the child is blundering tyranny.⁵

11. A well-managed institution for children should put very little stress on mere punishment.

If the children are kept busy and happy and are taught over a period of time to direct themselves, there will be little need for punishment. Encouraging mutual helpfulness and a kindly interest in others is the best stimulus to good behavior.

12. No corporal punishment should be permitted in institutions.

Corporal punishment is not the best method of correction. It frequently produces resentment and misunderstanding and makes the

⁴ For discussion of obedience see Child Management, pp. 22-25 (U. S. Children's Bureau Publication No. 143, Washington, 1925).

⁵ Reeder, Rudolph R.: How Two Hundred Children Live and Learn, pp. 145, 146. Noble & Noble, New York, 1911.

children in their turn apt to use violence to gain their ends, thus increasing rather than decreasing antisocial behavior.

Punishment should be regarded as medicine for moral illness, the offending child being the patient. The object to be attained is restoration to moral soundness and not merely the satisfaction of law or the payment of a penalty. Like medicine, it should be administered sparingly and with great care. There should be real understanding of what the results will be.

13. Punishments should be individual.

Group punishments are unjust except in cases in which the majority of the group have transgressed. They produce the atmosphere of mass treatment which is one of the worst features of institutional life. Individual consideration is what children need.

Although group punishments are bad, group standards of behavior which the group itself develops and enforces constitute one of the best means of encouraging right behavior and of punishing bad behavior. Children are more sensitive to the judgments of their peers than to the judgments of adults. Some measure of self-government is possible even to very young children. With older children a large measure of self-government is both possible and desirable.

14. Punishments inflicted by adults should be in the nature of allowing the child to suffer the natural consequences of his undesirable acts.

The child should be able to see why the punishment logically follows the act. Deprivations are ineffective unless they are the natural result of the offense. Requiring a child to make good the damage he has done and to make restitution in case of stealing have a good effect. Love and approval of the good go much further than displeasure and disapproval of the bad in securing good conduct.

15. Punishments which humiliate or degrade should not be inflicted.

Putting special clothing on offenders or inflicting other punishments which humiliate or degrade a child are relics of barbarism and have no place in any institution for children. All suggestions of revenge or vindictiveness on the part of the adult should be carefully avoided.

Many dependent children suffer from marked feelings of inferiority. Instead of having this condition aggravated by the kinds of punishment given, the child should have his own sense of fair play appealed to. His character should be strengthened rather than weakened by the punishment.

Isolation may be good punishment for the type of offense in which the child's behavior has been annoying and disturbing to the group, but isolation without occupation should be maintained for very short periods only. It must be remembered that the mind is busy—and not usually with wholesome thinking—when the body is in duress. There is danger to the child if he is left too long alone and unoccupied. A short period of isolation may have a good effect; a prolonged period may be very detrimental.

16. Rewards may take the form of special privileges, the opportunity to do or have some desired thing, symbols (such as those

used in scout work). The satisfaction which results when work is honestly done is to be held as an incentive before the children.

Rewards which express group approval of real effort at improvement or good conduct are helpful. Prizes for the best-behaved child or for scholarship are not in accord with the best educational standards. Care must be used therefore to give rewards for the right things. Mere facility of performance should not be rewarded above honest effort. The slower, less gifted individual should receive rewards commensurate with those given the clever child who may get better results with half the effort.

The granting of material rewards must not be overdone. When they are given the point to be stressed is the accomplishment of the object rather than the material reward received. Pride in accomplishment can be stimulated by a judicious giving of rewards, or it may be obliterated by an injudicious distribution of them.

INDIVIDUAL RESPONSIBILITY

17. The children must be trained to decide for themselves and assume responsibility for the results of their decisions.

The dependent child has been deprived of many of the advantages which are considered fundamental to childhood, but he is expected to go at an early age into the community and make his own way. If he is to do this successfully the institution must train his will as well as his mind and his hands. He must be taught to think for himself, to decide wisely, and to assume responsibility for his actions. The ability to choose rightly is developed by exercising the right of choice under wise direction; responsibility in small things trains for the assumption of responsibility in larger things. The daily life must be planned and opportunities sought to give all the children varied experiences and to develop initiative.

18. Some plan should be developed which will enable the children in the institution to gain experience in handling money.

Earning, saving, and spending money involve moral responsibility and open a large field for its development. Knowledge of the relative value of money is the right of every child. The dependent child who must rely upon himself at an earlier age and more completely than the average child is in special need of it. This can be secured only from experience in handling real money—not token money.

A system of payment for certain duties has been worked out in some institutions. The child who receives the money should be taught to keep an accurate account of the amount received and the purpose for which it is spent. This plan gives the child some money which he is free to save or spend as he wishes, and it makes him responsible for the purchase of certain necessities. This practical experience with money teaches many valuable lessons. Some mistakes will be made, of course, but if there is wise direction the child will profit by his mistakes. His economic training should include the earning, saving, spending, and giving of money.

SELF-GOVERNMENT

19. Real self-government in an institution depends upon the spirit of its administration rather than upon some form of organization, but adult guidance without domination is necessary.

Every child is not only an individual but also a member of a social group. Beside rules governing individual conduct there are principles and laws governing the group—the family, school, class, and neighborhood. The responsibility for the proper observance of these social laws and customs should rest largely upon the members of the group as a political organization or community whole. Teaching children, especially those 12 years of age and over, through both instruction and practical experience their duties and responsibilities as members of a self-governing body is not a fad or an experiment. It is of equal importance with other subjects of the home and school curriculum. Definite preparation for the responsibility of citizenship should begin with 12-year-old children in all group units of which they are a part.

20. The essential thing is that each child shall develop social consciousness and a sense of group responsibility.

The important factors for obtaining a large degree of self-government in children's institutions are the right spirit in the people who initiate and oversee the plan and their ability to inspire the children with right ideals. Under wise direction the meeting of group units of boys and girls to consider and pass judgment upon matters relating to them all is fine training for them. The conscious cooperation of the child as an individual or as a member of a group is the largest and most helpful factor in any program of child training. It bridges the chasm between those in authority and those under authority.

An annual report of an institution in which a self-government system has been in operation for about 15 years contains the following statement:

The older boys and girls have assumed larger responsibility for the welfare of all and have participated to a greater degree in the administration of affairs than in any previous year. A self-government organization has been effected consisting of a cottage council elected by the cottage group. Questions of discipline, protection of property, good manners, cooperation, cottage spirit, etc., come before this council, sometimes sitting alone, oftener in a section of the whole cottage. Once a month a general meeting of all the cottage councils is held, at which time the standing of the cottage upon various administrative objectives enumerated on the cottage chart are brought under review and discussion. The meetings have proved very helpful in developing public spirit and social responsibility among the boys and girls.⁶

The superintendent of an orphanage says:

With some reservations as to recommendation that the method be given general trial in all institutions it appears quite clear that the self-government principle at least can quite frequently be introduced in a time of exigency. Even though a formal organization may not be made with governor, mayor, attorney general, chief of police, and the like, there will arise occasions when a temporary organization may be effected to meet a special situation. When a definite trouble arises three or five of the older and more trustworthy children may be brought together to consider the difficulty, and it is usually easy

⁶ Orphan Asylum Society in the City of New York, One Hundred and Eleventh Annual Report, April 1, 1917, p. 10. Hastings-on-the-Hudson, N. Y.

to secure their cooperation by merely soliciting it. At Connie Maxwell Orphanage the children have frequently been organized informally at a time of stress when misdemeanors were becoming marked. Testimony from this institution indicates that there has never been difficulty in securing cooperation of a group of children when they were selected by the superintendent and appealed to for assistance in ferreting out a trouble and curing it. There has not been an instance of failure or hypocrisy or untrustworthiness on the part of any of the children organized in such a way. On the other hand, they have from time to time been organized informally not to ferret out trouble, but to support and help put through movements that were desirable and worthy. Children selected at such times and for such purposes have usually taken it as quite a high compliment and have in great sincerity and earnestness given their cooperation. It looks as if any institution might, at least upon occasion and in certain situations, use to high advantage the principle of self-government.⁷

21. A self-governing body should have a simple plan of organization.

The simpler the organization is the better, provided that the members of the group actually participate in a responsible manner in the government of the whole and that they deliberate and pass judgment upon matters of group concern, such as proposed rules for public welfare, the punishment of lawbreakers, fixing individual and community responsibility, measures for betterment, and social obligations.

22. In various attempts to promote self-government among children several errors have been prominent.

First, the organization has been too elaborate and complex in its operation for children to understand and administer it. It is not necessary in a system of self-government maintained by children that there should be formal court proceedings with judge, jury, and lawyer, to try cases arising out of the ordinary life of the school, community, or social group. The main thing is that the members of the self-governing body shall feel and express responsibility for the welfare and good order of the group, that they shall deliberate upon questions of behavior and public policy, and that they shall pass and execute judgments upon matters which concern the best interests of the community life.

Second, self-governing projects among children have frequently been made a show feature. They have been regarded as fads, or experiments, and neither the children nor the teachers have looked upon them seriously and as a necessary and important part of the community relationship.

Third, it has been assumed that self-government in a group of children necessarily means that absolute control and authority must rest with the children. This should never be the case, for children are not capable of assuming such responsibility. The object is to teach self-government to those not yet wholly competent to exercise it. Hence they should not be left entirely to themselves in rendering important decisions, but larger responsibility and authority should come with increasing success. The consideration of very serious offenses should never be left to the children.

23. The degree of self-government permitted to any group or unit of children should be just as much as they can administer.

⁷ Jamison, A. T.: Statement in personal communication.

In order to learn how to govern themselves, the children should even be allowed to make mistakes that are not too serious. They can learn in no other way.

Children and some adults often have difficulty in understanding the difference between self-government and self-control. Self-government is a social function; self-control is entirely individual.

For references on spiritual and moral training see Chapter XV, page 126.

Chapter XI.—EDUCATION

THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

1. A high-school education should be given to every child capable of profiting by it, and technical or trade training should be provided for children to whom it will be of advantage in obtaining the right kind of work after schooling has been completed.

Dependent children need special educational opportunities because of the social and educational handicaps from which so many have suffered, and because they must assume self-support and self-direction at an early age.

In these days for a child capable of profiting by a high-school education to stop short of completing such a course means both individual and social waste.

The program for children of preschool age.

2. The foundation of education should be laid during the preschool period.

There is no period when the child learns so many things as during the first five years of his life. In this period his health and behavior habits are formed. Therefore a definite educational program should be planned. Education during this period is not of the formal type. It includes training in proper health habits, the use of the hands, the beginning of home-making, and right social relationships.

3. Every institution should provide a wide range of activities, both indoor and outdoor, for the preschool children.

The older children who attend schools outside the institution have some of their normal interests provided for at school, but those under school age are entirely dependent upon the institution. Children of preschool age should spend several hours in out-of-door play except in cold and stormy weather. (For equipment for outdoor play see p. 100.)

4. Play is an important factor in the education of children of preschool age as well as of older children.

The following are suggested as indoor educational equipment for the preschool child:

Building blocks (large size).

Toy animals.

Dolls and doll furniture.

Montessori apparatus:

Cylinders (3 sets).

Long stair.

Broad stair.

Insets.

Color matching box.

Plasticine or modeling clay.

Pictures to be cut out and scissors.

Paste.

Puzzle pictures.

Picture books.

Story books (to be read aloud to the children).

Provisions for music (piano and phonograph).

The use of these materials requires skilled adult supervision.

5. *Supervision, not domination, is especially important in the preschool period.*

Free activity, with skilled help and guidance as it is needed, is the ideal.

The value of such activities as those suggested above is not mere amusement for the child, but mental growth and development. The reflex effect on character and personality of training during this period can not be overestimated.

6. *The nursery school for the child of preschool age is an important new educational development which the institution director will wish to study.*

The program for children of school age.

7. *Children of school age should be sent to the school of the neighborhood.*

This is the surest way of giving children normal contacts with other children and with the general life of the community as well as securing for them accepted educational standards.

Educational leaders in the United States favor the day school rather than the boarding school for children whose parents are free to choose the very best for their children. This is because normal home life and community relationship are preferred to the artificial environment of a boarding school from an educational as well as from a social standpoint. But when home and school are combined in an institution the problems of each are increased.

8. *An institutional school may be advisable under some circumstances.*

Some institutions are so situated that attendance at the school in the community is very difficult, if not impossible. The community school may be below the State educational standards and the management unwilling to cooperate in working out the joint educational problems of the institution and the neighborhood.

Attendance at community high schools is frequently possible even though elementary-school facilities are so limited that the institution must maintain its own grade school. As the high school requires more expensive equipment for laboratories and vocational training and a specialized staff, it is a great advantage to be able to use the community high schools.

9. *The justification for the social and educational losses which the children suffer who are educationally and socially segregated should be that the institutional school offers opportunities superior to those of the local schools.*

If the institution school is * * * enriching the life of the child in a hundred ways that are possible and giving him an understanding of himself, of the community, of commercial and social life, adapting its program to the needs of retarded children and those who do not fit the common curriculum of the public school, it is thoroughly justified. If, on the other hand, it is not meeting these various special adjustments, then, by all means, the children should attend the public school. For the effect of the institution school not so maintained will be to contract rather than expand and to institutionalize, isolate, and make the child queer.

It is probably true that not one institution school in ten is furnishing the educational, tailor-made fit * * *. It would, therefore, be better for the nine to send their children to the public school.¹

10. If an institution school is provided, the equipment and program of the school maintained by the institution must be as high in every respect as those maintained by the best local public schools.

The following standards should be met:

(a) The school building should be separate from other buildings.²

(b) The rooms used for school purposes must be adequate in size and number, well lighted, heated, and ventilated, and desirably located. Basement rooms should not be used for classrooms.

(c) Overcrowding must be avoided.

(d) The curriculum should be similar to that found in public schools.

(e) The school year should extend over a period of nine months at least.

(f) The hours spent in actual school work each day should equal the number spent in the public schools.

(g) The qualifications for teachers must be at least as high as for those employed in the public schools of the community. The teachers should be of pleasing personality, have satisfactory training, and hold licenses to teach according to the laws of the State. Salaries must be high enough to attract competent people. Teachers should participate in the social life and civic and educational activities of the local community. In other words, they should not be "institution persons," increasing the artificiality of the child's environment.

(h) Institution schools should be under the general supervision of the city or county and State board or department of education.

(i) Adequate supplies of books, properly adjusted desks (one for each child), blackboards, maps, and material for handwork should be provided.

11. Occasionally an institution which is not situated so as to be able to send the children to a public school can make arrangements to have the teaching done within its walls by public-school teachers, the rooms and equipment being provided by the institution.

12. Individual work is more important in the institution school than in the public school.³

Dependent children with their histories of irregular attendance, frequent changes in schools, and retardation need the best teaching service possible in order to regain lost ground educationally as well as physically and socially. The special needs of each child should be met through a flexible curriculum and adaptation of the program to the needs of the individual.

The experiences of one of the larger institutions in connection with the inauguration of a new plan of education is of interest.

¹ Reeder, Rudolph R.: *How Two Hundred Children Live and Learn*, pp. 192, 194, 195. Noble & Noble, New York, 1911.

² Suggestions for plans, and specifications for buildings and equipment, can be obtained from the Bureau of Education, U. S. Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C., and also from State departments of education.

³ For brief descriptions of certain educational systems emphasizing individualized instruction see *The Child: His Nature and His Needs; a survey of present-day knowledge concerning child nature and the promotion of the well-being and education of the young*, pp. 17, 18. The Children's Foundation, Valparaiso, Ind., 1924.

It undertook, in 1919, a detailed study of the individual capacities of the children and of their educational achievements. The superintendent stated that he considered it his imperative duty to classify and individualize the children—

so that each child would receive the home care, the type of education, the stimulus, the training in cooperation and in leadership, the special opportunities for individual growth and development of initiative which each child's talents, aptitudes, or capacities would indicate. As the first step in such a program it was necessary to develop complete individual records of each child, giving his social history, his habits, his attitudes, his reactions, his progress, his physical development and his mental intelligence.

* * * If individualization means anything at all, it means classifying our various groups into types such as superior, average, or normal, and various subdivisions of subnormal, and then giving to each individual in each group such intensive individual attention and opportunities for development as will bring out the best latent possibilities that each child in the group possesses. * * * No two individuals are alike in intellect, habits, emotions, actions, or reactions. Then why do we not proceed deliberately to discover these differences and to serve to the best of our ability the unique personality of each child in the normal as in the typical group? The answers generally given for not ministering to individual needs are either that the system or organization is too large, or that the institution has definite limitations, or that we are absorbed with too many routine details, or that we should be satisfied if the general appearance, tone, or order of the organization is good. So long as nothing very bad happens or becomes known, the public is generally satisfied. It is not, however, the negative aspect of control which should satisfy us. The real criterion of our educational and social efforts should be, what positive good are we accomplishing for each individual child under our care?⁴

13. Teaching material is easily accessible in the daily life of the institution.

Food supplies, whether produced or purchased, barrels of flour and sugar, purchase of shoes and clothing, tons of coal, garden patches of corn or of potatoes, offer many problems of arithmetic, industrial geography, transportation, and nature study for the classroom. The quantitative factors and the relations involved in maintaining the institution, if handled educationally, will provide a large part of the arithmetic in the classroom. The record and story of the various activities going on in the institution will furnish much of the material for instruction.

Teaching material of this sort should, however, not be limited to the institution. A much wider environment should be utilized, and an identity with the life of the town, the county, and the State should be assumed.

14. A suitable room should be set aside for home study and for reference books.

Study outside of regular school hours is necessary for many children, and adequate provision must be made for a comfortable, quiet room for home study and reading. A dictionary, an encyclopedia, an atlas, and books of history, travel, and literature should be available.

⁴ Goldrich, Leon, in introduction, pp. 5-7, to Report on the Psychological Examination of All the Children at the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society, by Mrs. Elizabeth T. Wood. Pleasantville, N. Y., 1923.

15. At least the larger institutions need an educational director who can study the general educational needs of each child, represent the institution in its contacts with the schools which the children attend, have general supervision over their home study, and be responsible for their vocational guidance.

Such a staff member might supervise home study, help new children to make satisfactory adjustments, discover the cause of any failures in grade and endeavor to correct the underlying conditions, be responsible for the coaching of any children who need it because they are falling behind (or because they can go ahead with greater rapidity because of unusual capabilities), work out plans for co-operation with the schools, and do any other pieces of work in connection with the educational program.

Home study should be made as much a matter of individual responsibility as is compatible with good school work, but a certain amount of supervision is required. The supervisor can be particularly helpful in the adjustment which is necessary when schools are changed and in assisting a retarded child to make progress.

16. Training for the right use of leisure time is quite as essential as training for work.

Because under modern industrial conditions the working day has become shorter, and because many jobs offer the worker little or no opportunity for self-expression, it is important that children be trained to use their leisure hours in wholesome and pleasurable avocations. One of the most valuable contributions which can be made to the life of the child during his stay in the institution is a quickened interest in things about him. Every possible avenue of expression should be cultivated so that natural and wholesome emotional outlets may be found now and in the future. A varied program of activities is required in order that each child may find something he will enjoy doing. Some people take great delight in making things with their hands, others express themselves best through music or painting or drawing; sports appeal particularly to the active child; cooking, sewing, and many other practical things when rightly taught are sources of real pleasure to the person who does them well. Needs and likes differ, but some mode of self-expression is essential if a sane and healthy attitude toward life is to be developed. A love and appreciation of beauty, the arts, and nature, and an interest in what people have done and are doing should be cultivated in every child so far as is possible.

17. Every child should be exposed to as many cultural influences as possible during his stay in the institution.

An important part of the educational program should be the development of good taste in the children. The institution has a serious responsibility for the creation of a taste for the best in music, art, literature, and methods of self-entertainment. During the developmental years the habit can be inculcated of attending lectures, concerts, dramas, and moving pictures of good quality. This will preclude the likelihood at a later date of any great interest on the part of the children in trifling or actually degrading amusements.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR EDUCATION BEYOND THE HIGH SCHOOL

18. Children capable of profiting by education beyond the high school training which they have completed should be aided in obtaining this.

Whether the training desired be collegiate, normal school, vocational, or in some branch of the arts, an effort should be made to enable the child to have it. Some children may be able to work their way through the college or university or the specialized school which they wish to enter. For such children encouragement and wise counsel will suffice. Others may need financial assistance. Scholarships and loan funds should be sought for these, and it may be desirable to finance outright the higher education of certain children. Some institutions have scholarship funds of their own, usually administered by a committee of the governing board, who make grants upon recommendation of the superintendent of the institution.

19. Plans should be made for the training of any children found to be especially gifted in music or any of the fine arts.

If there is no fund available for this purpose, it is often possible to interest well-to-do individuals in gifted children.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING

20. The change in policy from long-time care to short-time care now taking place in many institutions makes trade training or other vocational training in these institutions impracticable.

When a child remains in an institution for only a few months, real vocational training preparing directly for wage-earning is impracticable. Under these circumstances the training given adolescent boys and girls must be primarily of the type known as "prevocational," the object of which should be to provide sufficient range of experience in practical work for the young people to try themselves out and thus discover their vocational capacities and preferences.

21. Prevocational training should give the child a variety of experiences in practical activities.

Good equipment for prevocational training is expensive, and when it is possible for the children in an institution to benefit by the equipment installed in many public junior and senior high schools its duplication by the institution is not justified. However, in order that the school work in practical as well as academic subjects should be supplemented in every possible way, the institution might have some workbenches and tools in order to give the children an opportunity to put into practice at home the things which have been learned in the classroom.

If public-school facilities for prevocational training are not available, institutions caring for children of junior or senior high school age should provide equipment and teachers for training in some of the elements of business practice (the keeping of simple records, use of business forms, filing, use of the telephone and of the typewriter), and in a number of the processes fundamental to some of the common

trades, such as is given in a well-organized junior high school.⁵ Some equipment for woodworking, metal working, electrical work, and printing would be helpful.⁶

Training and experience in gardening, horticulture, and chicken raising also offer desirable prevocational training for both boys and girls if organized for teaching purposes.

22. Prevocational training not only provides a basis for educational and vocational guidance but is valuable also as a part of the child's general training.

Doing over and over again things already learned is not educational and is not vocational training. Any attempt to make practical vocational work serve as a partial support of the institution or reduce the necessary staff of the institution is sure to destroy its training value.

23. In institutions where long-time care is given, actual vocational training may be made a part of the education of the older children.

The school facilities of the community should be used when available for vocational training as well as for training of the prevocational type. Older children may obtain special training, including commercial or business training, in vocational schools of various kinds if the institution is in or near a large city. Trade training should be available for all who desire it and have the ability to profit by it.⁷

24. Farm work can not be called vocational training unless there is a consistent effort to give educational content to the farm work which the children perform.

Hoeing, weeding, digging vegetables, and picking fruit are merely forms of manual labor, and unless instruction is given to fit the boys to carry on the varied activities of a farm they are not receiving vocational training. When it is the purpose of the institution to give real training in farming, a trained agriculturist who has ability to teach as well as experience in managing a farm is needed. Instruction is needed in soils, varieties of plants, methods of planting and cultivation, of harvesting and marketing. Instruction in poultry raising should involve a study of every phase of the work necessary to carry on the business profitably. More than tending the garden or feeding the chickens is necessary if the work is to be of vocational value. The experience at Mooseheart is interesting in this connection.⁸

25. In institutions where the child remains long enough to receive vocational training, facilities for training girls as well as boys for wage-earning occupations should be available. In addition every girl should receive as much practical training and experience in the home-making arts as her age, abilities, and time in the institution permit.

⁵ For plans for organizing training in the practical arts, as well as a discussion of the relation of practical arts to general education, see *Vocational Education*, by David Snedden (The Macmillan Co., New York, 1920), pp. 455-511.

⁶ See *Vocational Guidance and Junior Placement* (U. S. Children's Bureau Publication No. 149 and Employment Service Publication A, Washington, 1925), especially "School Organization and Curricula in Relation to Vocational Guidance," pp. 1-4.

⁷ For a discussion of vocational training in relation to modern occupations and their demands, see *Vocational Education in a Democracy*, by Charles A. Prosser and Charles R. Allen (The Century Co., New York and London, 1925).

⁸ *Mooseheart Year Book*, being the governor's annual report. Mooseheart, Ill. See especially report for 1921-22, p. 100.

In providing vocational training for girls it should be borne in mind that, although the majority of the girls will probably marry, some will not.

Vocational education for women must then train women both for industry and for the home. If it does the former without the latter, it is preparing the average woman for at most only 10 years of her future life; if it does the latter alone, it is shirking the needs of those who will continue in industry, and is allowing the temporary workers to stay at ill-paid and unskilled jobs.⁹

Training in the home-making arts is important for a girl not so much because she may need to make her living by doing domestic work, although this is to be considered, but because, in all probability, she will have a home of her own some day; and the success of that home will depend in no small measure upon her ability as a home maker. However, it must be remembered that drudgery is not training, and great care should be taken lest the child be a victim of the routine of keeping the institution clean. Frequent change of occupation is essential.

Training in cooking should include a study of food values and desirable combinations of foods, methods of preparation, and attractive ways of serving. Each girl must have an opportunity to gain experience in actually planning, preparing, and serving meals, under normal conditions and with wise direction.

In regard to making training practical the school director for an institution for girls says:

Rather than try to create within the school itself situations that are intended to develop certain powers and qualities in the children, we find it better to send the children out to deal with the real situations that already exist. In this way they not only learn the special skills that are called for in that kind of work, but also develop a resourcefulness and a readiness to meet emergencies that would not be brought out under more artificial conditions. Thus, cooking is not taught in the school, but the school programs certain girls during each term for "dinner work" with different cottages, and these girls are taught and trained by their housemother to cook the dinner for that family. They do not prepare a meal for an ideal family of four, but an actual, hungry family of 6 to 12 people.¹⁰

For list of references on education see Chapter XV, page 127.

⁹ American Apprenticeship and Industrial Education, by Paul H. Douglas, p. 137. Columbia University, New York, 1921.

¹⁰ Allnutt, Phoebe G.: "Educational adventures in an institution." The Family [New York], Vol. IV, No. 4 (June, 1923), pp. 95-98.

Chapter XII.—RECREATION

THE NECESSITY OF PLAY

1. Play is essential to the physical development of children and to their mental well-being.

To the child play is a serious occupation. Children at play rarely smile. They are very serious and deeply in earnest. It is only when they commence to have regular and routine tasks that play commences to appear as an escape. In earliest childhood it is the all-engrossing occupation, and, further, it is the main avenue of education. Play is his form of gathering experience and later becomes his preparation for the serious activities of his adult life. * * * Unless he is successful in the social life of childhood he will scarcely be successful in the social life of maturity, and play offers him the most important introduction to this social life of childhood.¹

2. Time should be allowed for both active play and quieter forms of recreation.

Play should consist not only of vigorous exercises and healthy fun but also of some kinds of recreation which are not primarily physical.

Games, athletic sports, and folk dancing are diversions that promote physical development and offer opportunity for incidental moral training, stimulation of intellectual alertness, and other desirable qualities. Reading, music, handicrafts, and dramatics furnish excellent mental recreation. Scouting, nature study, and similar activities offer occasion for both physical exercise and mental exercise.

3. The recreation program should make some provision for all the children in the institution.

Shy or timid children need to take part in games and athletics even more than children who are sufficiently assertive. They are likely to be correspondingly less strong and active than the other children; and unless careful plans are made to include them in group games they may miss the training opportunity which they especially need. If the recreational life of the institution has taught them an appreciation of the most desirable kinds of recreation and a desire for these kinds it has given them a valuable asset for their future lives. Incidentally the influence of happy memories of childhood can hardly be overestimated, and the method in which leisure or free time was spent is seldom forgotten. There is a certain amount of training for future citizenship in the experience of being "in the game."

4. Every child should be out of doors as much as possible.

Children need fresh air and sunshine (see p. 51), and out-of-door play is better than indoor play except on days when the weather is unusually inclement.

¹ Myerson, Abraham, M. D.: "Mental hygiene and family life." Social Aspects of Mental Hygiene, pp. 79-80. Yale University Press and Oxford University Press, New Haven, Conn., and London, England, 1925.

5. The children need playmates from outside the institution.

So far as it is possible the children in an institution should play with the children of the community. If convenient of access, the community playground may be used so that the children will be under the supervision of the playground leader. Some institutions encourage the children in the neighborhood to come in for play on the institution's playgrounds. This aids in providing the outside contacts which teach children to adjust themselves to community life.

6. Every child should have at least an hour of supervised play and one hour of free play every day.

Games of all kinds should be taught so that children will know desirable ways of amusing themselves in their free recreation periods. A free period is one in which the children play on their own initiative and have entire control of their activities. The recreation supervisor should not, however, be unaware of what the children are doing.

7. If the institution is not large enough to have the services of a recreation expert, a member of its staff should devote part time to the recreational program of the institution.

A member of the staff who has adaptability or fitness for the work or who has had some recreational training should be assigned to take charge of the children's recreation. Some small institutions have this work done by one of the educational staff. Help or advice may sometimes be obtained from the playground leader of a near-by community playground even if it is not feasible to have the children of the institution play there.

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE RECREATION LEADER

8. The recreation leader should be responsible for the general planning of the recreation program, the competitions, expeditions, entertainments, and special celebrations.

Exercises designed to correct physical defects should not be included in the recreation program. Such exercises as those for improvement in posture are a part of the institution's work to safeguard health (see pp. 44-49). Although a regular time must be allotted to them they should not be allowed to encroach upon the recreation periods.

9. The recreation leader should be responsible for directing the supervised play. Certain points should be kept especially in mind:

(a) Know the game thoroughly; then put yourself into teaching it, and the children will catch your spirit.

(b) When explaining a new game have the children stand in a circle. This makes it easy to maintain quiet and order.

(c) Choose clever children to start a new game. After the game is comprehended choose the dull ones and let them take an active part.

(d) Be sure all the children understand the game. A certain mental satisfaction should accompany the physical exercise.

(e) Make the game easy at first, then gradually make it more difficult. Let the children discover the point of the game themselves.

(f) Give every child a chance to be "it."

(g) Encourage each child to be alert. Use the opportunity to improve the children's quickness of action, of seeing, and of hearing.

(h) Urge the timid children to take some risks, but develop reason and judgment about risks and dares.

(i) Do not make any game too serious. Get laughter out of it.

(j) Have quiet play or folk dances alternate with the active games.

(k) Make rules and stick to them. Fair play is an important matter.

(l) Remember that team play is very valuable, since it stimulates loyalty and unselfish effort toward a common end.

(m) Minimize the importance of winning. Good sportsmanship, excellent technique, and above all a scrupulous honesty are of much greater consequence.

(n) Permit the older boys and girls to serve frequently as assistants to the recreation leader by allowing them the responsibility of supervising the younger children's play and of leading their games.²

PLAY FOR CHILDREN UNDER 10 YEARS OF AGE

10. *Circle and singing games and folk dances are suitable for little children during the supervised period. Children 6 or 7 years of age or older enjoy tag, hide and seek, and similar games.*

The recreation leader should see that each child has opportunity to be "it" at least once, and that shy or backward children are encouraged to do their part in each game.

11. *In the free periods the smaller children should be given opportunity to build make-believe houses and camps, as well as to play running games.*

Little girls can play with their dolls, making doll houses from discarded boxes and crates, furniture from cardboard boxes, doll clothes and doll-house furnishings from odd bits of material. Paper dolls can be cut from old fashion and other magazines; and cutting out various pictures from magazines, old catalogues of seeds and household and other goods will entertain little boys as well as little girls. The children should learn neatness as well as skill.

If a box of old clothes can be furnished the smaller children will enjoy dressing up in them. Most little girls like to play at being grown up and keeping house, and the little boys have analogous plays.

PLAY FOR CHILDREN OVER 10 YEARS OF AGE

12. *Organized team play for older boys and girls should include such games as baseball, basket ball, hockey, volley ball, football, and tennis.*

Rules³ for these games can be obtained easily and should be available for consultation by the players as well as by the director.

13. *Field sports are excellent.*

Competition between classes or cottages or between the institution and other schools or other institutions is a good way to promote

² A Brief Manual of Games for Organized Play Adapted from Standard Sources, by Martha Travilla Speakman. U. S. Children's Bureau Publication No. 113. Washington, 1925.

³ Published by A. G. Spalding & Co., Fifth Avenue, New York City.

class or cottage loyalty. Pennants may be given to winning groups. No money or individual prizes should be offered. The following field sports are suggested: 100-yard dash, 220-yard dash (never longer except for the older boys), broad jump, high jump, and hurdle and relay races.

14. Swimming should be taught.

Concrete swimming pools are too expensive for most institutions (see p. 17), but if the institution is near a city or town in which there is a public or semipublic pool it may be possible for the institution to make arrangements to use the pool on certain days. Location near a small lake or river affords the best opportunity for swimming. There should be adequate supervision so that the safety of all the children is assured.

15. Folk dances can be taught by way of variety from the more strenuous plays.

Folk dances express the life and spirit of the people in the old countries, their industries, and their customs. The wholesomeness and simplicity of these dances are very appealing.⁴ Simple "fancy" costumes will increase the children's enjoyment of the folk dances.

16. Dramatics may extend from the make-believe of the smallest children to the preparation of plays which have educational value.

Little children enjoy dramatizing the stories which they hear or read. Many institutions present an annual play which gives a great deal of pleasure and affords opportunities for varied training in connection with its preparation. Charades are suitable for parties and are especially enjoyed by the older children. Marionettes—tiny toy characters made of clothespins, small dolls, or by carving out of soft wood—have great dramatic possibilities; the children manipulate them by threads from in back of the miniature stage that may be made from a hatbox.⁵

17. The children should have the opportunity to hear good music. They should be encouraged to sing, especially on Sunday evenings, and also to learn to play some musical instrument.

The phonograph and the radio put some acquaintance with good music within the reach of everyone. Music memory contests can be used to increase the children's interest in the best music. Whenever it is possible, the children should also be taken to hear good music outside of the institution.

Many institutions have their own orchestras and bands. A piano and other musical instruments should be a part of the institution equipment. The bands and orchestras should never be commercialized.

18. A taste for reading should be cultivated in all the children.

It is not advisable that any child be left out of the enjoyment derived from reading any more than that he be left out of games. A well-selected library suitable for different ages and different tastes

⁴ Suggestions may be found in Old English and American Games, by Florence Warren Brown and Neva L. Boyd (Saul Bros., Chicago, 1915), in Folk Dances and Singing Games, by Elizabeth Burchenal (G. L. Schirmer, New York, 1909), and in Listening Lessons in Music, by Agnes Moore Fryberger (Silver, Burdett & Co., New York, 1924).

⁵ Lists of plays may be obtained from the Playground and Recreation Association of America (315 Fourth Avenue, New York). In regard to marionettes, see The Tony Sarg Marionette Book, by F. J. McIsaac (B. W. Huebsch, New York, 1921).

is essential.⁸ Cast-off books and magazines from outside sources should not be accepted unless they are suitable. Some supervision is necessary to teach the children not to read by poor light nor to read too steadily without resting their eyes. Reading may be varied by table games such as checkers and dominoes, which are quiet enough to be played in a library and may be kept on a shelf in this room.

19. Handicrafts may be taught to both boys and girls.

In many institutions basketry, knitting, weaving, and woodcarving are among the most popular handicrafts in addition to the more usual "household arts." Materials and directions for chair caning, reed and raffia basketry, and simple weaving may be obtained from some of the large kindergarten supply houses.

Several of the larger magazines for women issue bulletins on basket making, knitting, crocheting, and simple gift making. The boys and girls should be encouraged to make gifts for their friends and to participate in such civic enterprises as sending scrapbooks and toys to the hospitals or to community Christmas celebrations.

20. The making of radio sets and simple electrical apparatus and the use of tools in simple carpentry give great pleasure to the boys who like to create things.

If a workbench and simple facilities for carpentry and other work can be supplied, this will be found to have educative value as well as to furnish entertainment. Wooden and cardboard boxes, spools, cord, nails, wire, and similar materials should be available for the manufacture of radio sets, bird boxes, weather vanes, kites, and similar projects. Jig-saw toymaking has great possibilities, is inexpensive, and is easy to teach. Marionette theaters (see p. 98), toy villages, and doll houses offer opportunity for cooperative effort in the designing and manufacture of interior and exterior properties that is extremely valuable social training. A project of this sort develops without much supervision if simple materials and a few suggestions are supplied.

21. An effort should be made to give every child some real knowledge of nature and natural history.

Walks in the field and woods with a teacher who knows and loves trees, flowers, and birds will be both pleasurable and instructive.

22. Each child should have garden space and seeds.

Gardening is one of the very best kinds of recreation. When a child's gardening is not compulsory it can become a source of genuine pleasure and continued interest. Seeds should be of his own choosing.

23. Some provision should be made for keeping pets.

Almost all children wish to have pet animals. Dogs, cats, rabbits, and birds are suitable, and the children can take the major part of the care of such pets.

24. Membership in recreational organizations should be encouraged.

In many institutions scout troops and camp-fire groups have been successful. The boys and girls not only enjoy all that scouting means in itself but find it a link with other groups of children. Informa-

⁸ Suggestions for books to be obtained may be found in *Graded List of Books for Children*, prepared by the elementary-school library committee of the National Education Association of the United States (American Library Association, Chicago, 1922).

tion about these organizations can be obtained from their headquarters.⁷ Leaders for scout troops can frequently be obtained among outside friends of the institution.

25. The observance of special days should be made a prominent feature of the children's recreational program.

Holidays such as Thanksgiving, Christmas, Easter, St. Valentine's, St. Patrick's, Halloween, and special anniversaries can be celebrated by having appropriate parties. Celebration of the children's birthdays and of school anniversaries by the whole institution are of great value in promoting wholesome mental and emotional attitudes (see p. 67.) To have special occasions to look forward to and to plan for gives genuine pleasure. Making the preparations can be educational in an indirect way as well as enjoyable in itself.⁸

THE PLAYGROUND

26. The playground should be level and large enough for several groups to play without interfering with one another.

Grass makes the best surface for a playground. A pavilion or some shelter against sudden showers is desirable. Trees, shrubs, and flowers along the sides of the playground or against its fence will make it attractive. There should be plenty of open space for games.

27. There should be diversity in the playground equipment.

The following pieces of apparatus are desirable:⁹

Swings.	Flying rings.
Seesaws.	Slides.
Horizontal bars.	Sand boxes.
Horizontal ladders.	

The sand boxes for small children should be as far as possible from the baseball diamond or other space where older children will play with balls.

28. Baseballs, bats, basket balls, and footballs should be supplied for each cottage or separate unit in the institution.

These articles should be in charge of some responsible person who will teach the children of the cottage or other unit how to take care of them properly.

29. Material should be accessible for free play.

In some corner of the playground should be placed some boards and any other discarded building material from which the children can build forts, houses, or whatever they wish. Care must be taken to have all nails drawn out of old lumber.

THE INDOOR PLAYROOM

30. An indoor playroom (other than the gymnasium) is a necessity.

The furnishings should be comfortable, attractive, and homelike. There should be one game closet where table games, such as check-

⁷ Boy Scouts, 200 Fifth Avenue, New York City; Girl Scouts, 670 Lexington Avenue, New York; Camp-Fire Girls, 31 East Seventeenth Street, New York.

⁸ Suggestions for making inexpensive decorations for various occasions may be obtained from paper specialty companies.

⁹ For suggestions in regard to simple equipment and its construction and placing, see Background Playgrounds (U. S. Children's Bureau Folder No. 2, Washington, 1923).

ers, authors, and dominoes, are kept. A "dress-up" box containing articles for costumes for informal dramatics can also be in this room.

31. Every child should have a separate place in which to keep his toys or treasures.

It is difficult for a child to have any distinct idea as to the individual rights and personal possessions of others unless he has felt the experience of having personal belongings (see p. 67).

The children should be taught to keep shelves, toy lockers, and drawers in reasonably good order, but they should not be compelled to throw away things which they wish to keep. The apparently valueless treasures that children collect are very precious to them, and the "collecting stage" is a recognized period of child life.

For list of references on recreation see Chapter XV, page 127.

Chapter XIII.—DISCHARGE AND AFTERCARE

POLICIES GOVERNING DISCHARGE

1. "The stay of children in institutions for dependents should be as brief as possible. The condition of all children in such institutions should be carefully studied at frequent intervals, in order to determine whether they should be restored to their own homes, placed in foster homes, or transferred to institutions better suited to their needs."¹

2. Depending upon the nature of the commitment and the institution's policy, discharge may relieve the institution of control over the child or may leave with the institution the responsibility of supervision even though the child is returned to his own home or placed in another home.

TECHNICALITIES OF DISCHARGE

3. Release can be only upon court order if a court has committed a child temporarily to the institution. The institution should receive notice of the proposed action so that investigation of home conditions may be made.

If it is agreed that the institution is to make the investigation of home conditions with a view to the discharge of the child the institution should submit a full report of the facts to the judge for him to use as a basis for his action, this report to cover an account of both the child's condition and the situation in the home to which it is proposed to return him. If the probation officers of the court are to make the investigation the institution should be notified of the intention to return the child to his own home and asked for a report on the child's condition. This should be submitted to the judge to consider together with the facts concerning the home conditions.

4. When a child has been committed permanently to the institution and it has assumed legal guardianship during minority, transfer of legal guardianship is possible only through adoption proceedings or through transfer to the parents by court action.

When adoption is contemplated there must be thorough knowledge of the prospective foster home and its desirability for the particular child.² Return of legal guardianship to parents should be based on careful study of conditions in the home and assurance of their permanency.

5. In case of placement under an agreement between the institution and the parents, unless permanent surrender has been given or

¹ Minimum Standards for Child Welfare Adopted by the Washington and Regional Conferences on Child Welfare, 1919, p. 11. U. S. Children's Bureau Publication No. 62. Washington, 1920.

² Adoption Laws in the United States, by Emelyn Foster Peck, pp. 17-18. U. S. Children's Bureau Publication No. 148. Washington, 1925.

an agreement entered into that can be legally enforced, the parents have the legal right to remove the child when they please; but frequently they can be persuaded to leave the child until they are able to give proper care.

If the parents insist on removal, regardless of the care they can give, it may be necessary to resort to court procedure to secure the right to retain custody until such time as conditions are more favorable.

6. The institution's responsibility usually ceases on discharge of a child to another institution or agency unless it has been granted the legal guardianship and retains it.

RETURN OF CHILDREN TO THEIR OWN FAMILIES

7. An institution should not be a permanent substitute for a family home.

A child must go out from the institution eventually. He must make his adjustment to family and community life sooner or later. It is important that this adjustment be made as expeditiously as possible.

Social and emotional values are attached to the child's relationship with his own family, even if it be a poor one. These often outweigh the superior physical and material benefits that can be supplied by an institution or a foster home. Permanent breaking of family ties should be permitted only after a determined and intelligent effort to conserve and rehabilitate the family has failed.

8. During the child's stay in the institution an effort should be made to rehabilitate the family.

Contact with the family will disclose ways in which help can be given. Sometimes the problems are moral, at other times they relate to health or material resources. A social worker with a knowledge of family difficulties can make use of community resources to improve conditions. Thus while the child is being cared for in the institution constructive influences may be brought to bear upon the family so that the way is paved for quicker and more satisfactory adjustment of the child in his own home. This should be done by a local family agency in cooperation with the institution.

Desire for the return of the child will serve in many cases as an incentive to the improvement of conditions. The plans for the child and his family should be related; neither can rightfully be considered independent of the other.

9. Reinvestigation of conditions is necessary at intervals unless constant supervision of the family is maintained.

Through investigation the institution will be able to determine the best time for the return of the child to his own home or the need for the permanent separation of the child from his family. In reinvestigation it is necessary not merely to note conditions as they are but to compare them with the original conditions. The family which is trying to improve should be given every encouragement.

10. Hasty action in returning children to their families, or action based upon superficial knowledge of conditions may render useless the work of the institution for these children.

When the child is allowed to return to conditions which will be detrimental to his welfare, the time, money, and effort expended by the institution in his behalf may be largely wasted. Children will benefit by institutional care only if their discharge is delayed until family conditions have been improved. Some can never safely be returned to their own homes; if they are to have any chance in life they must be separated permanently from their families and some other home found for them.

11. Supervision should be given children returned to their own homes. The duration of the supervisory period depends upon the need in each particular case.

Follow-up is especially necessary when the separation has been of long duration, for the child may find it difficult to adapt himself to the unfamiliar conditions. If the child is not guarded, the family may grow careless and allow very unfavorable conditions to exist. In assuming the care of children the institution acquires an opportunity and obligation to see that they have a fair chance after leaving.

PLACEMENT IN FAMILY HOMES

12. Institutions need to recognize the fact that placing children in families is not so simple a process as it has sometimes been considered but is a complex and difficult piece of social work requiring special training.³

Because of changes in ideals of education and conditions of farm labor and domestic service fewer children under 16 years of age are placed for their economic value on farms or in homes than was the case in the early years of placement by institutions. It is now recognized that a high degree of care and skill is required for adjusting the child to a foster home and safeguarding his welfare.

13. Cooperation of children's institutions with high-grade child-placing agencies, which are especially equipped to do this work, is the most effective plan for providing care in family homes.

Some institutions are doing child-placing work according to the best standards of child-caring agencies, providing for the investigation necessary to safeguard the child and find for him a proper foster home. It must be seriously considered whether it will be in the best interests of the child for the institution to undertake this work. It is undoubtedly desirable that the work for a child shall be carried through by the same agency if this can be done, in order to give him a sense of belonging somewhere and of having some one person or agency to whom he can look for assistance and friendly interest. But unity of service must not be obtained at the expense of quality and of safety to the child, which can be had only through expert work in home finding and supervision, and this as a rule institutions are not prepared to give.

³ Placement of children in family homes is not discussed in this handbook. For child-placing standards, see Chapter XV.—List of References, p. 128. See especially *Foster-Home Care for Dependent Children* (U. S. Children's Bureau Publication No. 136 (revised), Washington, 1926).

DISCHARGE OF CHILDREN COMMITTED FOR LONG-TIME CARE

14. Children can not be expected to become self-supporting on being discharged from the institution unless they have been given good preliminary training and such experience as will fit them to take their places in community and industrial life.

It is unfair to thrust a child abruptly from the sheltered environment of the institution in which limited opportunity is afforded for self-direction and self-initiated activity into a world in which he must assume entire responsibility for his own actions. If the hardening process has been accomplished gradually, the training given in the institution having been designed to encourage self-reliance and to develop a spirit of independence, the children may be discharged when educationally prepared.

15. Children should not be discharged from the institution on the basis of physical age but according to their preparation to make their way in the community and in the light of their educational and other individual needs. They should not be sent out without some definite plan for their future.

Institutions are getting away from the earlier idea of providing for children until they reach a certain age. Rigid age limits are not in accord with the individualization of children and the emphasis on the equipment of the child for home life in the community. When, however, it has been found desirable to keep a child in the institution until he reaches the age limit beyond which care can not be provided plans should be made for him which will insure satisfactory conditions. In arrangements for the change the child's own home should be considered first.

No child should ever be turned out merely because he has reached the age limit unless suitable provision has been made for him. If no suitable home can be provided by his relatives other steps must be taken in accord with the age and need of the child under consideration.

METHODS OF AFTERCARE

16. The institution should be responsible for fitting into community life each child whom it discharges by: (a) Returning the child to his own home if suitable; (b) finding a suitable home if his own is not the proper place; (c) finding work to which he is adapted; (d) providing for further education if desirable; (e) making a church connection; (f) finding wholesome recreation.

If the child is not returned to the home of parents or relatives the institution should find a suitable home elsewhere. If he is of proper age to begin work he should be guided to employment for which he is adapted and in which he will have opportunity for advancement.

The position of dependent children should not be made different from the position of the average child in his own family in regard to assuming the responsibility for his own living.

We expect orphan children to go out into the world at the early age of 15 or 16 and make their own way; but the child normally situated in his own home is never cut loose entirely from those deeply interested in him, can always count upon his parental roof as a haven to return to if he should fail in his first ventures at self-support, and he returns to it again and again

for a new start whenever failure overtakes him. What proportion of men and women succeed in their first ventures? Certainly not a large percentage * * *. Consider this in deplored the failures of orphan children.

Again, what an inestimable influence for success is the inspiration that the normal home lends to the first endeavors of the child to earn his own support; and how reluctant the whole family is to acknowledge that the child has failed; how quick to praise successful effort and to ascribe failure to conditions rather than to the personal equation, * * *. But the orphan child must fight his battles alone. He is not an endeared member of a family group and usually receives but little sympathy in his troubles. He is liable to hear censure only if he fails and has few to rejoice with him if he succeeds. These spiritual elements, born of kinship ties and so closely related to success or failure, are so much weightier than material conditions, however favorable, that they can not be estimated by the same standards.⁴

17. The institution's responsibility does not end with return of a child to his own family or placement of a child in a home.

Many children who have been returned to their own families or placed in foster homes still need the advice of a person who has an intelligent understanding of their needs and possibilities and knowledge of the opportunities for wholesome work and play.

18. Aftercare may be provided by (a) one or more trained workers on the institution staff or (b) through cooperation with another agency equipped to give such care.

The method of securing follow-up service will depend upon the individual organization. Some large institutions have found it desirable to organize a separate department with a trained staff of workers to supervise the children after they leave the institution. Such a department should be directly responsible to the superintendent of the institution. Smaller institutions may require the services of only one person. Children's aid societies or family case-work agencies may be enlisted by others. Volunteer workers may give valuable help, but they should work under expert direction.

A suggestive discussion of the work of Fellowship House, which has been developed for the aftercare of children discharged from the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society of New York, is given in a recent report:

The activities center largely around a program of adjustment for the adolescent boy and girl temporarily removed from the community, to which he later returns after a period of care in the institution or home bureau. Since the larger percentage of our children return to the homes of their own people, we work with the parents and relatives as well as the children * * *.

When we find no surviving relative, or none who is morally fit to receive the child into her home, the home-finder secures a home. * * * Scholarships cover the board and maintenance of some deserving boys who continue their education.

After the home is arranged for Fellowship House finds employment. Through a vocational-guidance program the best attempt is made to place our children in the work or school to which they are best adapted.

In recreation as in employment we utilize what the community has to offer for other young people. * * *

The health work is based on the use of existing community clinics and health organizations, except in special cases where we secure the volunteer services of some physician or psychiatrist or dentist. * * *

In our educational work we plan to keep our children in school, academic, commercial, or vocational, as the individual capacity of the child may demand. This we do through moral suasion of the relatives, through part-time work of the child and through the aid of scholarships that we can secure.⁵

⁴ Reeder, Rudolph R.: *How Two Hundred Children Live and Learn*, pp. 75-76. Noble & Noble, New York, 1911.

⁵ Report of the board of directors, the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society, May 25, 1924, pp. 28, 29. New York.

A leaflet issued by the Catholic Guardian Society of New York gives the following brief summary of the purpose of this work, which relates largely to children of working age who are released from institutions:

The aftercare of the boys and girls who are brought up in our asylums is the work of the Catholic Guardian Society.

The boys and girls who have no relatives, when they become 16 years of age, are placed in the hands of this society, which in turn places them in good boarding homes, pays their board until they can pay it themselves, gives them car fare and lunch money, provides them clothes when necessary, procures employment for them, loans them money when they are out of work, encourages them to save when they can, provides honest recreation for them in its clubs and reunions, takes care of them when they are ill. * * *

The society visits the boys and girls frequently. It maintains two free employment bureaus, it has a loan fund and a relief fund, and it has a savings plan. It would like to extend all these activities, and it would like to inaugurate a scholarship fund.⁶

19. The character of the institution, its equipment for this type of social work, and the services that are available from other agencies in the community will determine which of the methods of providing supervision and assistance to children after they leave the institution is to be used.

Under some conditions it is desirable that the institution itself should remain a guiding influence. In other cases it may be more desirable to transfer to other agencies responsibility for supervision, discontinuing institutional control and strengthening other community influences. The method of providing aftercare will be determined largely on the basis of the place the institution occupies in the community program of child-caring work—whether the institution is an independent unit embracing a variety of interests or is a part of a plan participated in by other child-caring and family agencies.

For list of references on discharge and aftercare see Chapter XV, page 128.

⁶ Ludlow, Samuel: After the Orphan Asylum—What? Catholic Guardian Society, New York, 1924.

Chapter XIV.—RECORDS AND STATISTICS

THE PURPOSE OF RECORDS AND STATISTICS

1. The institution for dependent children must have a record system by which may be known definitely the problems with which it deals, the details of its management, and its accomplishments.

Records should be written in concise and orderly form and filed so that information regarding children is readily accessible and data for periodic reports easily abstracted.

2. Good case records are so important that managing boards should more generally recognize the necessity of having the staff devote a part of their time to keeping the records complete and up to date.

The board has a direct responsibility to provide for the work of record keeping, since a high degree of efficiency can be maintained only by having this work done well. In large institutions the records of financial transactions and of administrative work are generally kept by staff members whose whole time is devoted to this work.

3. The primary purpose in keeping records is to collect such information concerning each child in the institution's charge as is necessary to give prompt and effective care, to safeguard the parent and child from separation, and to serve as a guide in planning for the future care of the child.

To give individual care to a child, such as institutions are now priding themselves upon giving, full knowledge of the child's personal and family history is necessary. The plan of treatment for the child—whether he shall be kept in the institution or placed in a foster home—and the special care and training to be given him depend upon comprehensive knowledge and understanding of his personality and background. The very fact that there are now so many more community resources than formerly upon which one may draw in planning for a child makes necessary more detailed knowledge of him in order that these resources may be used to his best advantage.

4. A secondary purpose in keeping records is to collect information to meet requests for facts and figures.

These requests come both from without the institution—namely, from the public, the State department of public welfare, the board of trustees, and various social agencies; and from within the institution, as from the administrative officers and various departments of the institution.

5. The collection of information for the purposes stated in paragraphs 3 and 4 calls for case records, administrative records, financial records, and statistics.

CASE RECORDS

6. The purposes for which case records are kept are:

(a) The more effective treatment of the child through a comprehensive knowledge of his family background and the social problems involved.

(b) The betterment of social conditions in general through an increased understanding of the factors entering into child dependency.

(c) The promotion of clear, critical thinking on the part of the case worker through the process of assembling record material.

7. Case records should include all major facts and any other facts without which the worker is unable to plan and carry out effective treatment.

Some facts which social workers generally agree upon as significant for treatment are pointed out in the following quotation:

A family-history record should show clearly certain facts about each member of the family, living and dead—the name, age, sex, the race, nationality, and religion. Because of the close connection which often exists between ill health and dependency, the physical and mental condition of each member should be noted, and if any are dead, the cause of death. The card should show how many children are in school, how many members of the family are working, their occupation, income, and efficiency. The habits and reputation of the parents and children should also be carefully determined and recorded.

In order to learn these facts it is usually necessary to consult several sources of information, and the family-history record should include the names and addresses of relatives, friends, and disinterested persons and organizations, such as physicians, employers, unions, churches, and so on, who may be able to cooperate or to give information which will be helpful in developing a plan for the child. * * * Records of membership in lodges or unions, previous addresses, and previous employers * * * may be of immediate use when more direct means fail.¹

To this summary of requirements for a family history it would be well to add legal residence of the family and date and place of birth of each child.

In the records of institutions for dependent children it is also important to record the name and address of the person from whom the child was received; whether or not the child was committed by a court or other public officer and for what reason he was committed; and whether or not payment is to be made for his care; and if so, by whom it is to be paid and what is to be the amount. (For other items necessary in the personal record of the child and in the record of the foster-family home see pp. 111-113.)

8. Whatever information is recorded must be definite and accurate.

"Date" calls for day, month, and year; "address" for street and number as well as city and State. The exact date of birth of a child is involved in the operation of school attendance and child labor laws; in juvenile-court jurisdiction, legality of marriage, ascertaining birth status; in choice of a guardian; and in the prosecution of crimes against children. The definite addresses of parents, relatives, references, or previous residences may play an important part in the plan for a child's future. Many a dependent child has relatives who would be willing to help if consulted before the child is admitted to the institution.

¹ Ralph, Georgia G.: Elements of Record-Keeping for Child-Helping Organizations, pp. 22, 23. Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1915.

9. The case records should include a record of the child's family, a personal record of the child, and a record of the home into which the child goes if the institution places him in a foster home.

The record of the child's family.

10. Generally the family history is recorded by means of a face card and a current record (sometimes called story sheet or running record).

The face card.—This is a printed sheet or card with blanks for the entry of certain facts which are frequently needed. Speedy reference is thus possible, and hunting through the current record for these items is rendered unnecessary.

The entries on the face card are of two kinds:

- (a) Permanent facts which serve to identify the family, such as names, date and place of birth, nationality, and previous addresses.
- (b) Facts which may change with further developments and which give an outline of the social situation, such as wages, physical and mental condition, occupation, and school grade.

The initial entries on the face card pertain to the social situation existing at the opening of the case. With further developments some of the items on the face card are no longer true. New entries must be made to preserve its usefulness as a source of reference and to aid in rapid comprehension of the situation at a given time. For each of these new entries indicating change in the family situation—such as new addresses, change in wages or in occupation—the date of the change should be entered in a date column. The birth of children subsequent to the opening of the record should be made clear by entry of the dates of their birth. The death of a member of the family is generally indicated by inclosing the name of the person in parentheses and entering the date of his death.

In addition to identifying the family and outlining the social situation the face card serves as a source for filling out statistical cards and as a spur to the worker to ascertain essential facts by revealing clearly any gaps in the information.

When a new face card is being planned the following suggestions should be borne in mind:

- (a) The card should be so simple that its contents may be read rapidly and easily.
- (b) The arrangement of items should be such that related facts are brought together, as birthplace and nationality, addresses, and names of interested individuals and agencies.
- (c) Of facts subject to change, only the most important and those essential to the outline of the situation should be included.
- (d) Only such facts should be included as may be stated accurately without qualifying statements requiring additional space.
- (e) Space may be provided in which check marks can be made to indicate the verification of such items as date of birth, date of death, court records, marriage, and divorce.

The current record.—This consists of blank sheets on which are entered reports of investigations and interviews. It contains information as to the history of the family, including the circumstances leading to the application for the child's admission to the institution and the subsequent record of the contact with the family while the child is in the care of the institution.

Either the chronological or the topical method may be used in writing up the current record, but a combination of the two methods has been found advisable, the first investigation being recorded topically and the subsequent history chronologically.

In the chronological method the information is recorded in the order in which it has been obtained, the interviews and visits being reported in the sequence in which they took place. The advantage of this method is that the process of the investigation is shown step by step, and the interview with its details and total impression is preserved in its entirety.

In the topical method the information obtained as a result of several interviews is arranged according to subject matter or topics and not according to the dates at which the facts were ascertained. Its advantage is that it organizes the information by placing details in their right relation to one another so that the worker will see them in proper perspective.

In a combination of these methods all the information resulting from the first investigation—that is, all the information assembled as the basis for deciding whether the child shall be admitted and for making a plan for him and his family—is arranged under such headings as reason for application, marital status of parents, other children, relatives, home life and surroundings; and the accounts of visits to parents and interviews with them after the child has been admitted to the institution are recorded chronologically as units instead of topically.

The personal record of the child.

11. *The information included in the child's history consists of admission data, history of supervision while the child is in the institution's care, and disposition data.*

Admission data.—These are such items as name, date and place of birth, date and place of christening; nationality; religion; legal residence of family; from whom received, whether committed by court; reason for commitment; whether the institution is to be reimbursed for care, and if so, by whom and to what extent; name and address of parents, their marital status, and whether they are living. If commitment papers are received they should be filed with the case record. Every effort should be made at the time of admission to learn from the committing officer or other person from whom the child is received all the facts known to him about the child. For this purpose a supply of blanks calling for facts which such an official might be expected to know or to be able to find out is needed, these to be supplied to court officers and directors of the poor or other applicants with the request that they fill out the forms and send them with each child.

The report of the medical examination made at the time of admission is really part of the admission data; but if a health record is

kept this report is best filed as a part of the child's history in the institution. (See the following paragraphs.)

History while the child is in the institution's care.—This includes the health, education, character and habits, and important happenings in the child's life during the period of his stay in the institution.

The health record should include important facts in the health history of the other members of the family, the child's physical history, report of the entrance examination and succeeding physical examinations, results of the laboratory tests made, a continuous height-and-weight record, a diagnosis, recommendations, and record of treatment given. There should be also a record of dental examinations and the treatment given and of mental examinations showing the tests used, the diagnosis, and the recommendations.²

The educational record covers school attendance and reports, retardations or advancements, general tendencies in the child's mental life, and general vocational tendencies. Such records indicate to superintendents or school principals the need for specialized educational care, as by placement in retarded or advanced classes, and reveal to the psychiatrist any legitimate reasons for retardation such as illness or late start in school. The vocational record serves as a guide in considering specialized higher training.

It is absolutely essential that there be a careful record of the child's character, traits, and habits as learned through the investigation of his family history and from observation of him while in the institution, and also a record of the special care and treatment given the child in view of the knowledge so gained. The greater part of this character study of the child will be included in the current record of important happenings. The suggestions as to the method of keeping the current record (see p. 111) made in the discussion of the family record will apply here.

It is advisable that a periodic summary of the child's progress as shown by the current record be made from time to time.

Disposition data.—These refer both to placement under supervision and to complete discharge from care. They should include date of and reason for placement or discharge and the name and address of the person with whom placed or to whom discharged; the nature of the placement or discharge—whether to parents, relatives, or foster-family home (boarding, wage, free, or adoptive), or to another institution; and whether the discharge is by court order. If the disposition data and the admission data are recorded on separate cards or sheets it is advisable that certain items, such as date of birth and name and address of parents, be repeated on the disposition card. After the child has been placed his history while he is in the foster

² The institution-inspection bureau of the State department of public welfare, division of charities, has prepared health-record forms for the use of Ohio institutions. These include separate forms for children under and over 6 years of age, with supplementary health records covering personal and family history, entrance examinations, reprints of the weight-height-age tables issued by the American Child Health Association, forms for report by the superintendent of the periodic examination of all children, and health leaflets. The department of finance, Bureau of Children's Aid, Sacramento, Calif., has a simple health-record form for institutions consisting of a single sheet which covers report of entrance examination and tests, health history of the child and his family, report of periodic examinations, dental chart, and space for child's picture. See also Standards for Physicians Conducting Conferences in Child-Health Centers (U. S. Children's Bureau Publication No. 154, 1926). The physical-examination form from this publication may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., at 3 cents per copy, or \$24 per 1,000 and \$11 for each additional 1,000 ordered at the same time.

home, similar to the histories kept while children are in the institution, should be filed with the rest of his personal records.

Although in general the content of the child's history as outlined is that covered in more or less detail by most institutions for dependent children the method of recording it varies somewhat. Some have simply a face card containing blank spaces for recording admission, disposition, and identifying data, a medical sheet, and a running record. Others find it helpful to keep separate cards pertaining to different phases of the child's life, such as admission card, discharge card, medical sheet, monthly height-and-weight sheet, psychological-clinic card, dental-clinic card, eye-clinic card, school record, daily schedule, character-analysis card, and clothing card. Still others prefer four-page sheets divided into sections according to topics.

The record of the foster-family home.³

12. The information included in the record of the foster-family home consists of application data, report of the investigation, and history of supervision of the home.

Application data.—These are generally recorded on the application blank filled out by prospective foster parents. They should include the composition of the household, the name, sex, age, religion, nationality, occupation, and relationship of each member; the applicants' statements as to health and financial standing; their reason for desiring to take a child, the type of child they desire, and their plans for him; directions for reaching the home; and names and addresses of references.

Report of the investigation.—This consists of the report that the visitor of the institution makes concerning the home and the family, together with the written references.

The purpose of this investigation is to determine the fitness of the applicants to care for a child and to gain such an insight into their characteristics as will aid in deciding for what special type of child they are best suited to care. The investigation of the prospective foster-family home is similar in principle to the investigation made of the child's own home and family, but its procedure is slightly different.

The visitor's report of visits to the family and to the references is generally made on a printed form topically arranged. It covers family composition and history; moral character; habits and personality; education and evidence of culture and refinement; financial circumstances; health; standing in the community; the neighborhood with reference to associates, influences, and accessibility to school and church; the home itself with reference to comfort, housekeeping, and sleeping arrangements for the child; and the worker's impression of the home and recommendation for its approval or disapproval. For references many institutions use form letters containing questions as to the applicants' dispositions, habits, health, church attendance, financial condition, fitness to care for children, and other matters,

³ For discussion of investigations and extracts from case records, see *The Selection of Foster Homes for Children*, by Mary S. Doran and Bertha C. Reynolds (New York School of Social Work, New York, 1919); and *The Child in the Foster Home*, by Sophie van Senden Theis and Constance Goodrich (New York School of Social Work, New York, 1921).

which are sent to people given as references by the family and to others known to be acquainted with the family.

History of supervision of the home.—This should consist of a list of the children placed there and the reasons for their removal or transfer, together with an account of conditions found on visits to the home that show changes in the social situation following the investigation, and the degree of the foster parents' success or failure in dealing with children. The use of a current or running record form for the entry of such information seems preferable to visitation blanks, but an outline of points to be covered in recording conditions in the home is helpful.

Special points in record making.

13. In record making there are some special points to be observed. These apply not only to the family record but also to the child's personal record and to the foster family home record.

(a) The observations of an investigator and the statements of persons interviewed should be recorded as soon as possible after the visit or interview.

(b) Care should be taken to have the proper names in records correctly spelled.

(c) All records should be carefully dated, and if a record is continuous each new entry should be dated.

(d) In recording an interview always give the date, the full name and address of the person interviewed, his relationship or connection with the child or family, important details of the interview, and the name of the visitor. (What the person actually said should be stated, never deductions based upon what was said.)⁴

(e) Terms which express judgments, such as "good," "bad," "doing well," and which are indefinite, such as "incorrigible," "immoral," "laborer," should be avoided.

(f) If information has not been secured on any point, state why the facts are not given.

(g) Under points relating to relatives, reference, membership in organizations, and so on, the full name and address of the person or organization should be given.

(h) Points requiring special or expert knowledge to determine should be answered in a way that will leave no doubt as to the source of information.

(i) A detailed account of investigations should be written up in addition to answering the questions covered by the record form.

(j) Records of all children in care should be reviewed periodically, and a summary of important developments in each case should be made.

(k) Records should be kept up to date.⁵

Case-record forms and methods of filing them.

14. The number and detail of the record forms will depend upon the size of the institution, the variety of its activities, and the amount of time which the workers can devote to keeping records.

A set of detailed case-record forms adapted to the use of child-placing agencies and institutions having adequate provision for clerical work has been prepared by the Child Welfare League of America; and a set of brief forms adapted to an institution that wishes to record the essential facts but is limited in its facilities for keeping records has been prepared by the National Conference of

⁴ Some additional points which might well be included about the person interviewed are facts which make for or against his reliability as a witness, any interpretation of the facts which he may offer, and any plans for treatment which he may suggest (see *The Social Case History*, by Ada Eliot Sheffield, pp. 124-126, Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1920).

⁵ Ralph, Georgia G.: *Elements of Record Keeping for Child-Helping Organizations*, pp. 112-124. Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1915.

Catholic Charities.⁶ Many State departments of public welfare supply record forms.

15. Next in importance to the form in which records are kept is the way in which they are filed. In order to be of the greatest possible value they must be readily accessible.⁷

It will be found most practicable to use folders of standard correspondence size and to have all record forms of standard letter-head size (8½ by 11 inches) so that all or nearly all the paper may be inserted flat. These folders may then be filed in standard letter-size vertical files (preferably fireproof), with provision for locking.

When only one child is received from a family all records and papers pertaining to the child, his family history, commitment papers, school record, medical record, letters received and carbon copies of letters sent, and miscellaneous records may be filed in one folder. If two or more children are received the family-history record may be filed in the folder of the first child received, and a reference made to it on the face card of the personal record of each of the other children received from that family. The numbering of cases may be on a family basis. Although each child may have his own folder, all the folders should bear the same record number with the child's name or some other device clearly distinguishing the records. These folders may be filed together.

Records of foster-family homes should be filed separately from the children's records. In addition to this file of foster-home records it is advisable to have for ready reference a card file of all family homes approved for use showing the name, address, and telephone number; the rate of board; the number, age, and sex of the children for whom the home is available; and the names of children placed in each home with the dates of placement and removal.

16. Records may be filed alphabetically according to name of the child or numerically according to record number. Except for small institutions with very few records the numerical system is recommended.

Records filed numerically are made accessible by means of a card index arranged alphabetically, from which the record number is obtained. This card index should include a card for each child for whose care application has ever been made to the institution. Such a card needs to contain only the information necessary to identify the child and show where his record may be found; that is, the child's name, sex, and date of birth, the name and address of each parent, and his record number. A similar index should be kept for all persons who have ever applied to take children. Cards 3 by 5 inches (a standard size) are suitable for such indexes.

17. For the sake of accuracy and uniformity, the responsibility for keeping and filing records should rest upon one worker.

This is advisable whether the institution is so small that only an inconsiderable portion of one person's time is thus occupied, leaving him free to perform other duties, or whether it is so large that his

⁶ Samples of these forms may be obtained from the Child Welfare League of America, 130 East Twenty-second Street, New York, and from the National Conference of Catholic Charities, 700 Eleventh Street NW., Washington, D. C.

⁷ For detailed discussion of record filing see "Methods and devices for making records available," in Elements of Record Keeping for Child-Helping Organizations, by Georgia G. Ralph, pp. 132-155 (Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1915).

full time and that of one or more assistants are required. The confidential nature of case records and the necessity of securing them against loss or misplacement make it advisable that access to records be had through this worker only.

ADMINISTRATIVE RECORDS

18. Administrative records are those kept to facilitate administration and supervision and will vary in form and number according to the size and organization of the institution.

(a) Daily reports from the house mother of each cottage (or, in the semicongregate system, of each group), showing the activities of the cottage or group, its special needs and its problems.

(b) Daily reports from hospital and clinics.

(c) Reports of the activities of the institution visitor, usually kept by day sheets or day books showing number and nature of visits, interviews, and letters written and received.

(d) Register of children received, discharged, and placed, serving as a chronological record and a check if records are misplaced or lost.

(e) Personal records of each employee, consisting of his application papers and his record while in the employ of the institution.

It might be helpful to get information regarding the forms of these records by writing to some institutions which have worked out methods of recording such activities,⁸ also to State departments of public welfare.

FINANCIAL REPORTS

19. The purpose of the financial report is to show all the financial transactions of the institution.

The sources of income and nature of expense should be analyzed very carefully. The increase in the number of activities carried on by the institutions calls for a careful allocation of expenses in order to compare costs of different types of service.

A considerable number of persons in the child-caring field have been working for several years over schedules to be used by agencies and institutions in making their financial reports. At the National Conference of Social Work in 1921 in Milwaukee the subcommittee on statistics of the children's division approved the classification of current expenses under three main divisions: (a) Administration: (b) direct service to children; (c) financing, publicity, and educational work.⁹

⁸ For example, the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society of Pleasantville, N. Y., has among its general report forms a daily hospital census and daily report from the dental clinic; a schedule of daily activities of the cottage group; stock record, bathing list, laundry list, honor roll, inspection report, requisitions for goods and household supplies for each cottage, and a time sheet for employees. The New England Home for Little Wanderers, 161 South Huntington Avenue, Boston, Mass., has monthly report forms for the various departments showing the activities of each; for example, the number and disposition of applications to the foster-home department; the number of children referred to the department of advice and assistance, the type of care asked, and the disposition of these applications; the number of children received by the department of placing out, the number transferred, placed, and discharged, and special medical, mental, and dental care given.

⁹ A committee of the Child Welfare League of America (130 East Twenty-second Street, New York) has prepared financial and population schedules for the use of child-caring organizations. The financial schedules follow in the main the classification made by this committee on statistics.

20. To insure accuracy of financial records and to facilitate the making of the annual financial statement it is advisable to—

(a) Have only one open bank account and have the treasurer or a board member countersign all checks.

(b) Enter on the treasurer's books all receipts from every source and allow no withdrawal of expenses of solicitation of funds before turning in receipts.

(c) Pay traveling expenses out of traveling advances. These should be made by the treasurer and accounted for by monthly expense accounts filed by each traveling representative.

(d) Keep careful record of each contributor, with name, address, date, and amount given.

(e) Check invoices of goods purchased against the monthly statements before paying bills.

(f) Attach all received bills and invoices to canceled checks and keep them separate by months.

(g) Keep a receipt and expense register on which all receipts and expenditures are entered with date, check number, name of account, amount and classification of purchase for each expenditure, also date, source, amount, and classification of every receipt (including donations). Such register may be balanced at any time and a classified statement of receipts and expenditures easily drawn up for any given period.

(h) Verify the bank balance at the end of each month and prepare regularly a monthly statement of receipts and expenditures, assets and liabilities, one copy to be submitted to the governing board and one to be kept on file.

(i) Have the books audited semiannually or annually by a certified accountant.

SOCIAL STATISTICS

21. The purpose of keeping social statistics is to show to the managing board, the public, and the State department of public welfare the nature and volume of the institution's work and to facilitate comparison with other institutions. The case records are the chief source of the population figures and other social statistics collected for annual reports and special studies.

The material could be compiled directly from the case records, but this would be a laborious process; and unless case records are filed chronologically their information regarding admissions and dispositions of the current year is almost inaccessible. Since only certain items are collected for statistical purposes—mainly those previously classified under admission and disposition data—it is better to enter on statistical cards of standard size (4 by 6 inches or 5 by 8 inches) the data required, and then make the tabulations from these cards. Many State boards of public welfare require reports of admissions, placements, and discharges; therefore in those States the items needed for such reports should be kept in mind when a statistical card is being planned. It may be possible to use

one card form for both the report to the State board and the material needed in compiling the annual report.¹⁰

*22. Among the items contained on the statistical card should be the following:*¹¹

- (a) Child's name, address, and record number.
- (b) Date of admission and of admissions prior to this year. Space should be left for additional admissions.
- (c) Date of birth, age at admission, sex, race.
- (d) Source from which child was received.
- (e) Reason for admission.
- (f) Whereabouts of child at time of admission.
- (g) Diseases and physical defects of child.
- (h) Birth status, marital status, and whereabouts of parents at time of the child's admission.
- (i) Country of birth and mother tongue of father and of mother.
- (j) Religion of father and of mother.
- (k) Occupation of father and of mother.
- (l) Date of child's placement under supervision and name of person with whom child is placed. Space should be left for additional placements.
- (m) Date of discharge from care and age at discharge. Space should be left for additional discharges.
- (n) Nature of discharge.

23. If the statistical cards of all children under care during the year—that is, of all children under care at the beginning of the year plus those admitted during the year—are filed together alphabetically, tabulations may be made easily of facts regarding all children under care during the year as well as of admissions, placements, and discharges during the year.

Tabulation at the end of the year will be made simple if metal signals or flags of different colors are used to indicate classifications such as admissions, readmissions, placements, replacements, discharges, and redischarges. This method will be especially helpful in making out the population report, for which it is desirable to know how many of the children admitted during the year had never been under care before or had been under care in the current year or in previous years, and in which the number of children under care of the institution but placed out in foster-family homes must be shown.

When all tabulations have been made and the annual report completed the cards of the children discharged from care and custody should be removed and placed in an inactive file. The active statis-

¹⁰ A good example of the type of card suited to this purpose is that used by the department of public welfare in Georgia for reporting intake and discharge from institutions. It is 5 by 8 inches in size, with its face arranged for the entry of admission data and the reverse for the entry of discharge and placement data. When a child is admitted the face of the card is filled out and the card is sent to the State department. When the child is discharged or placed a blank which is a duplicate of the reverse of that card is filled out and sent to the State department. The data on this duplicate are then transferred by the State department to the reverse of the card containing the child's admission data. (Samples of these cards may be obtained from the State department of public welfare, Atlanta, Ga.) Blanks which might be adapted to this purpose are used by the State board of charities in New York for reporting admissions, placements, and discharges. (Samples may be obtained from the State board of charities, Albany, N. Y.)

¹¹ Suggestions for tables based on the items of the statistical card and definitions of these items may be obtained in mimeographed form from the Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.

tical file will then contain only the cards of the children under care at the beginning of the new year whether they are in the institution, in family homes, or elsewhere under supervision.

24. The file should include only one card for each child under care during the year.

If a child is admitted and found by reference to the general card index of children (see p. 115) to have been under care before the current year but not within it, his statistical card should not be removed from the inactive file. A new card should be made out with social data corresponding to the situation existing at the time of this readmission. But if a child who has been under care during the current year is discharged and then is readmitted, no new card should be made out. The card already in the active statistical file should be used, the date of the new admission being entered on it, and any change in the social data (such as different parental status or occupation of parents, or new reason for commitment) with the date of the admission to which they apply.¹²

For list of references on records and statistics see Chapter XV, page 129.

¹² Children who are simply returned to the institution after placement under supervision in a family home are not to be regarded as discharged and readmitted; hence this paragraph does not apply in the case of such children.

Chapter XV.—LIST OF REFERENCES

The following list contains the names of books, pamphlets, or magazine articles recommended for reading by superintendents and staffs of institutions for dependent children and by members of boards of directors. Some references are given also to agencies or institutions that issue from time to time publications relating to this field. These public or private organizations will on request send the latest or most appropriate and useful publications that they have available. There is given first a general list of references which includes publications that deal with more than one phase of institution management, and following this are special lists for the chapters of this handbook. The arrangement is alphabetical.

GENERAL

1. Alabama State Child Welfare Commission: Minimum Standards for Child-Caring Agencies and Institutions. Montgomery, 1922. (Mimeographed.)
2. California State Board of Charities and Corrections: "Standards for children's institutions." Ninth Biennial Report, 1918-1920, pp. 64-65. Sacramento, 1922.
3. The Child: His nature and his needs. Prepared under the editorial supervision of M. V. O'Shea. The Children's Foundation, Valparaiso, Ind., 1924. 516 pp.
4. Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: Child Care—The Preschool Age, by Mrs. Max West. Publication No. 30. Washington, 1922. 82 pp.
5. ———: Child Management, by D. A. Thom, M. D. Publication No. 143. Washington, 1925. 36 pp.
6. ———: Foster-Home Care for Dependent Children. Publication No. 136 (revised). Washington, 1926. 289 pp.
7. ———: Habit Clinics for the Child of Preschool Age; their organization and practical value, by D. A. Thom, M. D. Publication No. 135. Washington, 1924. 71 pp.
8. ———: Infant Care, by Mrs. Max West. Publication No. 8. Washington, 1926. 118 pp.
9. ———: Minimum Standards for Child Welfare Adopted by the Washington and Regional Conferences on Child Welfare, 1919. Publication No. 62. Washington, 1920. 15 pp.
10. ———: Standards of Child Welfare; a report of the Children's Bureau Conferences, May and June, 1919. Publication No. 60. Washington, 1919. 459 pp.
- ✓ 11. Doherty, William J., Ludwig B. Bernstein, and R. R. Reeder: Child-Caring Institutions; a plan of inspection—questions, suggestions, and standards. Department of Public Charities of the City of New York, 1915.
12. Hart, Hastings H.: Preventive Treatment of Neglected Children. New York, 1910. 419 pp. (Out of print; available in libraries.)
13. Illinois Department of Public Welfare: "Report of the children's committee, December, 1920." Report of the subcommittee on standards for licensing institutions, pp. 134-155. Springfield, 1921.
- ✓ 14. Indiana Board of State Charities: Boarding Homes for Children. Rules and regulations adopted November 19, 1912. 8 pp.
This refers also to institutions for children.

- ✓ 15. Jamison, A. T.: The Institution for Children. Baptist Book Depository, Columbia, S. C. [1925]. 207 pp.
16. Johnson, Charles H.: "Standards of efficiency in institutions for children." National Conference of Social Work (formerly National Conference of Charities and Correction), Proceedings, 1914, pp. 171-178.
17. Langer, Samuel: The Organization and Construction of a Child-Caring Institution; a report on reconstruction plans for the Pacific Hebrew Orphan Asylum, San Francisco, 1919. 64 pp.
18. McEntegart, Bryan J.: "Institutions for children—their relation to other agencies." National Conference of Social Work, Proceedings, 1924, pp. 139-144.
19. ———: "Child-caring homes." *The Catholic Charities Review* [New York], Vol. VI, No. 8 (October, 1922), pp. 263-266.
Treats of the standards of admission, care, and aftercare.
20. Michigan State Board of Corrections and Charities: Rules and Regulations for the Government of Child-Caring or Placing Agencies, November 18, 1913, amended May 27, 1920. Lansing. 1 p.
21. Minnesota State Board of Control, Children's Bureau: Minimum Standards for Boarding and Permanent Homes. September 2, 1924. St. Paul. 30 pp.
The appendix contains blanks, report forms, and resolutions.
22. Missouri State Board of Charities and Corrections: Rules and Regulations for the Government of Boarding Houses for Infants, Boarding Homes for Children, and Child-Placing Agents and Agencies. *Bimonthly Bulletin* [Jefferson City], vol. 24 (March-April, 1922).
Applies also to institutions for children.
23. Mooseheart Year Book, being the governor's ninth annual report. 1921-1922. Mooseheart, Ill. 160 pp.
24. New York State Board of Charities: Rules Governing the Reception and Retention of Inmates and Reports of Institutions (Homes for Children), as amended to May 17, 1916. Albany, 1920. 12 pp.
25. North Carolina State Board of Charities and Public Welfare: The Care of Children in Institutions. Special Bulletin No. 5. Raleigh, 1925.
- ✓ 26. O'Grady, John: "Child-welfare work and family responsibility." Special Conference of Religions, National Conference of Catholic Charities, Proceedings, 1923, pp. 270-277.
Treats of the obligations of the family toward a child placed in an institution and the attitude of the institution toward the family.
27. Ohio State Department of Public Welfare, Division of Charities: Child-Caring Institutions; suggested minimum standards for children's homes in Ohio. Columbus, 1925. 54 pp.
28. ———: A Guide Book for Boarding Mothers. Columbus, 1925. 44 pp.
Applies also in part to institutions.
29. Oregon State Child Welfare Commission: Standards for Child-Caring Institutions. Portland, 1921 (reissued). 10 pp.
30. Pennsylvania Department of Public Welfare, Bureau of Children: Child Care in Institutions. Bulletin 16 (May, 1924). Harrisburg. 30 pp.
31. A Program for Catholic Child-Caring Homes. Report of the committee on standards, Sisters' Conference, National Conference of Catholic Charities, Proceedings, 1923. Obtainable from the Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C. 39 pp.
32. Reeder, Rudolph R.: How Two Hundred Children Live and Learn. Noble & Noble, New York, 1911. 247 pp.
Treats of the dietary, training, education, and environmental conditions of the children in a large orphanage.
33. Richmond, Mary E.: Social Diagnosis. Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1917. 511 pp.
Treats of the processes used in the collection of data in the social treatment of individuals.
34. ———: What is Social Case Work? Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1922. 268 pp.
Treats of the application of case-work methods to certain types of social work, including institutional care.

35. Standards of Work for Child-Caring Institutions, Day Nurseries, and Placing-Out Societies. Council of Social Agencies of the Welfare Federation of Philadelphia. Philadelphia, 1925. 12 pp.
36. A Study in Institutional Child Care; a survey of the Marks Nathan Jewish Orphan Home. Research Bureau of the Jewish Philanthropies of Chicago. Chicago, 1921.
37. Trotzkey, Elias L.: A Program of Institutional Child Care; report of the superintendent of the Marks Nathan Jewish Orphan Home. Chicago, 1923.
38. Ueland, Elsa: "A reevaluation of methods of child care—the care of children in institutions." National Conference of Social Work, Proceedings, 1924, pp. 128-130.
39. What Dependent Children Need; as stated by men and women who daily live and learn with them. Edited by C. V. Williams. Child Welfare League of American Bulletin, No. 7. New York, 1922. 148 pp.
An outline of the standards of care for dependent children in relation to their physical, mental, moral, and emotional needs.

ADMINISTRATION

40. Hart, Hastings H.: The Job of Being a Trustee. Russell Sage Foundation, Monograph No. 1, New York, 1916. 16 pp.
To accompany the Round Table Plan for Trustees of Institutions. See No. 43 of this list.
 41. Johnson, Charles H.: "The efficient cottage mother." New York State Conference of Charities and Correction, Proceedings, 1911, pp. 241-249.
 42. Modern Cottage Plan for Care of Dependent Children; a manual for cottage mothers and supervisors. Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society, Pleasantville, N. Y., 1925. 136 pp.
 43. Richardson, C. Spencer: Round Table Plan for Trustees of Institutions for Dependent Children. Russell Sage Foundation. New York, 1916. 15 pp.
 44. Southard, Lydia, B. A.: Institutional Household Administration. J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1923. 214 pp.
Deals from the business point of view with the management of the institutional household, especially the general administration of living quarters and of the housekeeping.
- See also bulletins of the Child Welfare League of America on this subject, and Nos. 11, 15, 16, and 36 of this list.*

THE PLANT

45. Ayres, May, Jesse F. Williams, and Thomas D. Wood: Healthful Schools; how to build, equip, and maintain them. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1918. 292 pp.
46. California State Board of Charities and Corrections: "Requirements regarding fire protection." Tenth Biennial Report (1920 to 1922), pp. 78-80. Sacramento, 1923. (Also published separately.)
47. Jackson, Edward, M. D.: "Daylight in the schoolroom." National Education Association, Addresses and Proceedings, 1921, pp. 308-315.
48. Lighting the Schoolroom. Published by permission by the National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness, New York, 1924. 4 pp.
Based upon the American standard code of lighting school buildings prepared and issued under the joint sponsorship of the Illuminating Engineering Society and the American Institute of Architects and approved by the American engineering standards committee.
49. Report of the Committee of Oculists and Electricians on Artificial Lighting of School Buildings. School Document No. 14, Municipal Printing Office, Boston, 1907. 20 pp.
50. Report on Methods of School Ventilation, by the Chicago Commission on Ventilation. American Medical Association, sixty-second annual session, Los Angeles, 1911. 7 pp.
51. Riddle, H. S.: The Boiler House; a treatise for the promotion of efficiency and economy in the boiler house. Ohio Board of Administration Publication No. 4. Lancaster, 1915. 10 pp.

52. Rosenau, Milton J.: Preventive Medicine and Hygiene. D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1921. 1567 pp.
 Water, pp. 1015-1190; sewage disposal, pp. 1191-1217; refuse disposal, pp. 1219-1224; ventilation, pp. 960-984; heating, pp. 984-989; school sanitation, pp. 1325-1350.
53. Ventilation; report of the New York State Commission on Ventilation. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, 1923. 620 pp.
54. Winslow, Charles E. A.: Fresh Air and Ventilation. E. P. Dutton, New York, 1926. 182 pp.
55. Wisconsin Industrial Commission: School Lighting Code. Madison, 1921. 34 pp.
See also publications of the United States Public Health Service, Washington, D. C., on this subject and No. 44 of this list.

BUILDINGS

56. An Outline of the Plans for the Children's Community Center of the New Haven Orphan Asylum. Floor plans. New Haven, 1925.
57. Sanders, Mrs. Charles Bradley: How to Furnish the Small Home; a handbook for furnishing and decorating the inexpensive house. Better Homes in America (an educational organization with national headquarters at 1653 Pennsylvania Avenue, Washington, D. C.), Washington, 1924. 32 pp.
 At the end of the pamphlet is a brief selected list of publications on furnishing and decorating.
See also Nos. 12, 15, 17, and 44 of this list.

ADMISSIONS

58. Carstens, C. C.: "What children should be received for care by an institution or agency and what is the responsibility for those not accepted." National Conference of Social Work, Proceedings, 1925, pp. 83-88.
59. Cole, Lawrence C.: "The plan of a general bureau of inquiry." National Conference of Social Work, Proceedings, 1922, pp. 150-154.
60. Doherty, Rev. John: "Agencies for determining whether care outside of own home is necessary, and if so, what kind of care." National Conference of Social Work, Proceedings, 1925, pp. 88-94.
61. Johnson, Charles H.: "How many children are needlessly in institutions?" National Conference of Juvenile Agencies (formerly National Conference on the Education of Truant, Backward, and Delinquent Children), Proceedings, 1914, pp. 104-111. Discussion, pp. 112-115.
62. McCoy, Helen L.: "The Philadelphia plan of a central bureau of inquiry and specialized care." National Conference of Social Work, Proceedings, 1922, pp. 145-150.
63. Oregon Child Welfare Commission: Standards of Investigation for Admission of Children to Institutions. Portland. 1 p.
64. Reynolds, Wilfred S.: "Admission to child-caring institutions and societies of neglected and dependent children." National Conference of Social Work, Proceedings, 1921, pp. 93-95.
See also Nos. 6, 10, 15, 16, 18, 19, 26, 33, 34, and 39 of this list.

PHYSICAL CARE

65. Baldwin, Bird T., Ph. D., and Thomas D. Wood, M. D.: Weight-height-age tables for boys and girls. American Child Health Association, New York, 1923.
66. Bancroft, Jessie: The Posture of School Children. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1913. 327 pp.
67. Carter, William E., M. D.: "Physical findings in problem children." *Mental Hygiene* [New York], Vol. X, No. 1 (January, 1926), pp. 75-84.

68. Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: Posture Clinics; organization and exercises, by Armin Klein, M. D. Publication No. 164.
69. ———: Posture Exercises: a handbook for schools and for teachers of physical education, by Armin Klein, M. D., and Leah C. Thomas. Publication No. 165.¹
70. ———: Demonstration of the Community Control of Rickets, by Martha M. Eliot, M. D. Reprinted by the Children's Bureau from the Proceedings of the Third Annual Conference of State Directors of the Local Administration of the Maternity and Infancy Act, 1926. 5 pp.
71. ———: Sunlight for Babies. Folder No. 5. Washington, 1926.
72. ———: Standards for Physicians Conducting Conferences in Child-Health Centers. Publication No. 154. Washington, 1926. 11 pp.
73. ———: Statures and Weights of Children under Six Years of Age, by Robert M. Woodbury. Publication No. 87. Washington, 1921. 60 pp.
74. Cleveland Protestant Orphan Asylum: Annual Report. Cleveland, 1922. 20 pp.
75. Dublin, Louis I., and John C. Gebhart: "Do height-and-weight tables identify undernourished children?" *American Journal of Public Health* [New York], vol. 13, no. 11 (November, 1923), pp. 920-927. Reprint issued by the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.
76. Emerson, William R. P., M. D.: Nutrition and Growth in Children. D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1922. 342 pp.
77. ———: "Nutrition and growth in children." *Boston Medical and Surgical Journal*, vol. 188, No. 1 (January 4, 1923), pp. 8-10.
78. Holt, L. Emmett, M. D.: Care and Feeding of Children. D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1923. 252 pp.
79. ——— and John Howland, M. D.: The Diseases of Infancy and Childhood. D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1919. 1180 pp.
80. Lucas, William Palmer, M. D.: The Health of the Runabout Child. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1923. 229 pp.
81. My Little Child's Health; study outline of the preschool child. American Child Health Association, New York, 1923. 48 pp.
82. Ohio Department of Public Welfare, Division of Charities: Child Health in Institutions (Interpretation of Health Leaflet Series, Institution Series No. 2), by Joanne Ortelle, R. N. Columbus, 1925.
- Deals with the responsibility of the institution, of the admitting physician, and of the community, and with defective nutrition.
83. Terman, L. M., M. D.: The Hygiene of the School Child. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1914. 417 pp.
84. Thomas, Leah C., and J. E. Goldthwait: Body Mechanics and Health. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1922. 112 pp.
85. Wood, Thomas D., M. D., and Hugh Grant Rowell, M. D.: Health through Prevention and Control of Diseases. World Book Co., Chicago, 1925. 122 pp.
- See also Nos. 4, 5, 7, and 8 of this list.*

FOOD AND CLOTHING

ED

86. Bureau of Education, United States Department of the Interior: Diet for the School Child. Health Education Series No. 2. Washington, 1922. 14 pp.
87. Bureau of Home Economics, United States Department of Agriculture: Food for Young Children, by Caroline L. Hunt. Farmers' Bulletin No. 717 (revised). Washington, 1920. 26 pp.
88. ———: Good Proportions in the Diet, by Caroline L. Hunt. Farmers' Bulletin No. 1313. Washington, 1923. 24 pp.
89. ———: How to Select Foods, by Caroline L. Hunt and Helen W. Atwater. Farmers' Bulletin No. 808 (revised). Washington, 1921. 15 pp.

¹The Children's Bureau has a motion-picture film entitled "Posture," which may be obtained on loan from the bureau.

90. California State Board of Control, Department of Finance: "Standard dietary for an orphanage," by Adele S. Jaffa, M. D. Report of the Bureau of Children's Aid, 1920-1923, pp. 38-55. Sacramento.
91. Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: Milk, the Indispensable Food for Children, by Dorothy Reed Mendenhall, M. D. Publication No. 163. Washington, 1926. 43 pp.
92. Food for the Family. New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor Publication No. 120 (revised). New York, 1922. 31 pp.
93. Gillett, Lucy H.: Food for Health's Sake. National Health Series. Funk & Wagnalls, 1924. 47 pp.
94. Holt, Emmett L.: Food, Health, and Growth; a discussion of the nutrition of children. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1922. 273 pp.
95. McCollum, E. V., and N. Simmonds: The Newer Knowledge of Nutrition (revised). The Macmillan Co., New York, 1925. 675 pp.
96. ———: Food, Nutrition, and Health. East End Post Station, Box 25, Baltimore, 1925. 143 pp.
97. Monroe, D., and Lenore Monroe Stratton: Buying and Our Markets. M. Barrows & Co. Boston, 1925. 321 pp.
98. Receipts for Institutions. Chicago Dietetic Association. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1923. 163 pp.
99. Rose, Mary Swartz: Feeding the Family. Revised edition. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1924. 487 pp.
Gives instructions for the preparation of food and the planning of menus for children of various ages.
100. ———: "Child nutrition and diet." *Journal of Home Economics* [Baltimore], vol. 15, no. 3 (March, 1923), pp. 129-142.
101. Smedley, Emma: Institution Receipts (fourth edition). E. Smedley, Media, Pa., 1924. 342 pp.
See also Nos. 4, 5, 7, and 8 of this list.

CLOTHING

102. Bigelow, Zella G.: "The hygiene of clothing." *Journal of Home Economics* [Baltimore], vol. 12 (June, 1920), pp. 253-258.
103. Bureau of Home Economics, United States Department of Agriculture: Selection and Care of Clothing, by Laura I. Nalldt. Farmers' Bulletin 1089. Washington, 1920. 32 pp.
104. ———: Home Laundering, by Lydia Ray Balderton. Farmers' Bulletin 1099. Washington, 1920. 32 pp.
105. Cranor, Katharine Taylor: "Clothing and health." *Journal of Home Economics* [Baltimore], vol. 15, no. 8 (August, 1923), pp. 426-430.
106. Glanton, Louise P.: "The relation of clothing to health." *Journal of Home Economics* [Baltimore], vol. 16, no. 4 (April, 1924), pp. 185-191. A bibliography.
107. Sherman, Florence A., M. D.: "The hygiene of clothing." *Journal of Home Economics* [Baltimore], vol. 17, no. 1 (January, 1925), pp. 20-26.
See also Nos. 4, 8, and 44 of this list.

MENTAL HEALTH AND HABIT FORMATION²

108. Baldwin, Bird T., and Lorle I. Stecher: The Psychology of the Preschool Child. D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1924. 305 pp.
109. Burnham, William H.: The Normal Mind; an introduction to mental hygiene and the hygiene of school instruction. D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1924. 702 pp.
110. Cameron, Hector Charles, M. D.: The Nervous Child. Oxford Medical Publication, Oxford University Press, New York, 1924. 233 pp.

² References on these two subjects have been combined because of the similarity of the source material.

111. Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *The Practical Application of Mental Hygiene to the Welfare of the Child*, by D. A. Thom, M. D. Reprinted by the Children's Bureau from the Proceedings of the Third Annual Conference of State Directors of the Local Administration of the Maternity and Infancy Act, 1926. 9 pp.
112. Cleveland, Elizabeth: *Training the Toddler*. J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1925. 172 pp.
113. Gesell, Arnold, M. D.: *The Mental Growth of the Preschool Child*. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1925. 447 pp.
114. Groves, Ernest R., and Gladys Hoagland Groves: *Wholesome Childhood*. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1924. 183 pp.
115. Miller, H. Crichton: *The New Psychology and the Teacher*. Thomas Seltzer, New York, 1922. 225 pp.
116. Morgan, John J. B.: *The Psychology of the Unadjusted School Child*. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1924. 300 pp.
117. Pennsylvania Department of Welfare, Bureau of Children: *Some Undesirable Habits and Suggestions as to Treatment*, by Jessie Taft. Bulletin No. 4. Harrisburg, 1922.
118. Richard, Esther Loring, M. D.: "The elementary school and the individual child." *Mental Hygiene* [New York], vol. 5 (October, 1921), pp. 707-719.
119. Richmond, Winifred: *The Adolescent Girl*; a book for parents and teachers. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1925. 212 pp.
120. Scott, Miriam Finn: *How to Know Your Child*. Little, Brown & Co., Boston, 1915. 316 pp.
121. Social Aspects of Mental Hygiene. Addresses by Frankwood E. Williams, C. Macfie Campbell, Abraham Myerson, Arnold Gesell, Walter E. Fernald, and Jessie Taft. Yale University Press, New Haven, and Oxford University Press, London, 1925. 150 pp.
122. Taft, Jessie: "Problems of normal adolescence." *Mental Hygiene* [New York], vol. 5 (October, 1921), pp. 741-751.
123. White, William A., M. D.: *The Mental Hygiene of Childhood*. Little, Brown & Co., Boston, 1919. 193 pp.
124. Wile, Ira S.: *The Challenge of Childhood*; studies in personality and behavior. Thomas Seltzer, New York, 1925. 305 pp.
125. Woolley, Helen T.: "Enuresis as a psychological problem." *Mental Hygiene* [New York], Vol. X, No. 1 (January, 1926), pp. 38-53.

See also issues of *Mental Hygiene*, published quarterly by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York, and many excellent papers obtainable as reprints from it (especially Nos. 44, 58, 80, 81, 83, and 85); pamphlets issued by the American Social Hygiene Association, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York; and Nos. 3, 5, 7, and 38 of this list.

SPIRITUAL AND MORAL TRAINING

126. Annual Report, Orphan Asylum Society in the City of New York. Hastings-on-Hudson, New York, 1917.
Contains an outline of the self-government system in operation in this asylum for 15 years.
127. Cabot, Ella Lyman: *Everyday Ethics*. Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1906. 439 pp.
128. ———: *Ethics for Children*. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1910. 262 pp.
129. Cabot, Richard Clarke: *What Men Live By*. Houghton Co. (now Houghton Mifflin Co.), Boston, 1914. 341 pp.
130. Gruenberg, Benjamin C., editor: *Outlines of Child Study*; a manual for parents and teachers. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1922. 260 pp.
Obedience, pp. 23-25; truth and falsehood, pp. 34-37; fear, pp. 42-46; the use of money, pp. 82-84; children's books and reading, pp. 135-140; arts in the life of the child, pp. 141-150; religious training, pp. 196-198.

131. Healy, William, M. D.: Honesty; a study of the causes and treatment of dishonesty among children. The Bobbs-Merrill Co., Indianapolis, 1915. 220 pp.
132. Patri, Angelo: Child Training. D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1922. 434 pp.
A collection of short popular essays on various phases of child training.
133. Report of Board of Directors, Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society, 1924. Pleasantville, N. Y.
See also Nos. 3 and 5 of this list.

EDUCATION

134. Allnut, Phoebe C.: "Educational adventures in an institution." *The Family* [New York], Vol. IV, No. 4 (June, 1923), pp. 95-98.
135. Children's Bureau and United States Employment Service, United States Department of Labor: Vocational Guidance and Junior Placement. Children's Bureau Publication No. 149 and Employment Service Publication A. Washington, 1925. 440 pp.
136. Douglas, Paul H.: American Apprenticeship and Industrial Education. Columbia University, New York, 1921. 348 pp.
137. Fryberger, Agnes Moore: Listening Lessons in Music. Silver, Burdett & Co., New York, 1925. 254 pp.
General instructions to teachers, graded for schools, with suggestions as to songs and phonograph records. Can be used by persons who are not trained teachers.
138. Graded List of Books for Children, prepared by the elementary school library committee of the National Education Association of the United States. American Library Association, Chicago, 1922. 235 pp.
Contains annotated lists of picture books and easy reading for children, by school grades, with prices and publishers.
139. O'Shea, M. V.: Mental Development and Education. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1921. 403 pp.
140. Prosser, Charles A., and Charles R. Allen: Vocational Education in a Democracy. The Century Co., New York, 1925. 580 pp.
141. Snedden, David S.: Vocational Education. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1920. 587 pp.
142. Wood, Elizabeth T.: Report on the Psychological Examination of All Children at the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society. Pleasantville, N. Y., 1923.
See also bulletins of the Bureau of Educational Experiments, 144 West Thirteenth Street, New York; numbers of Progressive Education, a quarterly review of the newer tendencies in education, published by the Progressive Education Association, Washington, D. C.; bulletins of the Bureau of Education, United States Department of the Interior, and of the Federal Board for Vocational Education; the yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education, Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.; and No. 3 of this list.

RECREATION

143. Atkinson, Robert K.: Play for Children in Institutions. Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1923. 44 pp.
144. Bancroft, Jessie H.: Games for the Playground, Home, School, and Gymnasium. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1918. 456 pp.
145. Brown, Florence Warren, and Neva L. Boyd: Old English and American Games. Saul Bros., Chicago, 1915. 55 pp.
146. Bryant, Sara C.: How to Tell Stories to Children. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1905. 260 pp.
147. Burchenal, Elizabeth: Folk Dances and Singing Games. G. L. Schirmer, New York, 1909. 92 pp.

148. Bureau of Education, United States Department of the Interior: Athletic Badge Tests for Boys and Girls. Physical Education Series No. 2. Washington, 1923. 17 pp.
149. ———: Preparation of School Grounds for Play Fields and Athletic Events, by Dorothy Hutchinson. Physical Education Series No. 1. Washington, 1923. 17 pp.
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159. Stories to Tell to Children; a selected list with stories and poems for holiday programs. Third edition. Carnegie Library, Pittsburgh, 1921. 76 pp.
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See also publications of the American Child Health Association, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York; and Nos. 137 and 138 of this list. Pamphlets and charts for nature study may be obtained from the United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C., and from the National Association of Audubon Societies, 1974 Broadway, New York. Lists of playground equipment and of manufacturers of equipment, lists of plays, pageants, suggestions for holiday celebrations, and bulletins on various recreational activities may be had from the Playground and Recreation Association of America, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York. Suggestions and directions for certain handicrafts and for decorations for entertainments may be obtained from the larger kindergarten supply companies and paper specialty companies.

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